Towards Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration in the Asia-Pacific Region

Challenges and Opportunities

The shaded areas of the map indicate ESCAP members and associate members.

The Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) serves as the United Nations' regional hub promoting cooperation among countries to achieve inclusive and sustainable development. The largest regional intergovernmental platform with 53 Member States and 9 associate members, ESCAP has emerged as a strong regional think-tank offering countries sound analytical products that shed insight into the evolving economic, social and environmental dynamics of the region. The Commission's strategic focus is to deliver on the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, which it does by reinforcing and deepening regional cooperation and integration to advance connectivity, financial cooperation and market integration. ESCAP's research and analysis coupled with its policy advisory services, capacity building and technical assistance to governments aims to support countries' sustainable and inclusive development ambitions."

Towards Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration in the Asia-Pacific Region

Challenges and Opportunities

Foreword BY SHAMSHAD AKHTAR

The Asia-Pacific region is a fulcrum for international migration — home to the world's largest and most important countries of origin, and destination. The region has welcomed migrants, whether for economic benefits or to accommodate those displaced. It has been responsive to changing circumstances, and its dynamism has driven countries of origin to also serve as countries of destination. If all the over 62 million international migrants in the Asia-Pacific region were considered together they would make up the thirteenth-largest population in the region, just behind the population of Thailand, and constituting more than the population of Myanmar. If the over 101 million migrants who have left their countries of origin in Asia and the Pacific were considered together, they would be the ninth-largest population, almost equivalent to the population of the Philippines.

Migrants form a distinct group and exhibit enormous potential, but are also exposed to a range of vulnerabilities. They are poorly paid, concentrated in low skill jobs and in the informal sector requiring difficult and sometimes dangerous physical labour. Female labour migrants are often employed as domestic workers, exposed to risks of exploitation and abuse at the hands of their employers.

Yet, despite the challenges many migrants face, they make invaluable contributions to both their countries of origin and destination. Wage disparity between domestic and overseas workers is significant and most migrants, given their family compulsion, end up remitting the bulk of their earnings to their countries of origin and hence live in distressful conditions.

The Asia-Pacific region benefits from high levels of remittances that have reached close to US$276 billion in 2017. In countries such as Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan and Nepal remittances made up the equivalent of over a quarter of GDP in 2015. Besides for balance of payments, households have been able to use these funds to finance housing, education and livelihoods of their families. The countries of destination benefit too in terms of meeting skill shortages, higher productivity and returns on their investment.

As this report argues, migrants serve as agents of sustainable development: factoring in how they boost financing, consumption and investment, and contribute to growth. In addition to reducing the poverty rate, migration creates new connections whose benefits transcend localities and borders. As the climate changes, people face new pressures to migrate. Migration must be recognized as a means of building resilience against climate shocks. Given the economic dynamism of the region and ageing of the population in many countries, migrants can play an even bigger role in filling labour force gaps until host countries resolve the fundamental issues of ageing.

Countries of origin, such as Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, the Philippines and Sri Lanka, have developed extensive infrastructure to protect migrants throughout the migration process — from pre-departure to return. Countries receiving large volumes of migrants, such as Kazakhstan, the Republic of Korea and the Russian Federation have taken pragmatic measures to open regular paths to labour migration with protections for migrants and their populations. Thailand has cooperated with countries of origin, introduced laws to address abuses against migrants, and promoted the inclusion of migrants in the national health system. Across the region, under the aegis of the United Nations along with all stakeholders including civil society, there has been advocacy to prevent unilateral measures that might aggravate migrants' vulnerabilities.

The 2030 Agenda has led the way, with many of its targets focusing specifically on migrants: ensuring their labour rights, especially those of migrant women; protecting them against trafficking in persons; reducing the costs of sending remittances; and ensuring that migration takes place in an orderly, safe, regular and responsible fashion.

The September 2016 High-level Summit on Large Movements of Refugees and Migrants marked a watershed, with Member States setting forth a bold commitment to negotiate and agree a Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration within two years in order to comprehensively address international migration in all its dimensions and at all stages, on a basis of cooperation and protection of migrants' human rights.

As the United Nations' intergovernmental forum covering the whole Asia-Pacific region and with a mandate to promote regional cooperation, ESCAP, working with its partners, has a key role to play in assisting members and associate members in responding to this bold agenda. By promoting dialogue, and producing analytical reports such as this one, ESCAP provides its members with an unparalleled platform for identification of the regional priorities for the Asia-Pacific region with regard to international migration, and can help ensure that these priorities are heard at the global level. And once the compact has been adopted, ESCAP will always be ready to support countries of the Asia-Pacific region to implement their commitments for the benefit of countries of origin, destination — and migrants themselves.

I commend this report to a global audience for its insights on a topic that affects us all.

SHAMSHAD AKHTAR

Under-Secretary-General of the United Nations and
Executive Secretary of ESCAP

Acknowledgements

Executive Summary

International migration is a structural feature of an interconnected Asia-Pacific region, and is one of the key factors shaping the region with profound social and economic impacts. Migratory movements change the composition of the population, labour force and society.

In the context of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, ensuring that migration takes place in a safe, orderly, and regular fashion will be a key priority for countries of Asia and the Pacific. As such, migrants are both agents of sustainable development, and its beneficiaries.

In the New York Declaration for Refugees and Migrants, adopted in September 2016, Member States set themselves the goal of adopting a global compact for safe, orderly and regular migration by 2018. This report aims to support that process by providing an analysis of trends and patterns on migration in the Asia-Pacific region, its impacts and policy responses, as well as providing recommendations for the global compact to serve as a background document for the Asia-Pacific Regional Preparatory Meeting for the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration. Its layout is as follows: Chapter 1 provides an analysis of trends and trajectories based on the latest estimates of migration stocks from and in Asia and the Pacific; Chapter 2 overviews the drivers and key pathways of migration; and Chapter 3, the impacts of migration. Chapter 4 summarizes the policy responses at national and multilateral level. Chapter 5 concludes with recommendations for consideration as part of the process of developing the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration.

TRENDS AND TRAJECTORIES

There were 62.1 million international migrants in the Asia-Pacific region in 2017. This represents a growth of more than 10 million migrants since 1990. Meanwhile, over 101 million migrants worldwide originated from countries of the region. Most of them are South-South migrants, many of them move within the same subregion and specifically to neighbouring countries.

Migrants have diverse profiles including both men and women, mostly of working-age but also with important stocks of child and older migrants. Female migrants constitute the majority of the migrant stock in the region, with 50.5 per cent of migrants in the region in 2017 being women.

Migrant women face particular challenges related to gender-related discrimination which results in irregular forms of migration and work that is often not covered by labour law.

PATHWAYS OF MIGRATION

The diversity in migrant populations reflects the different drivers and facilitating factors that underlie and guide migration flows. The majority of migrants to and from Asia-Pacific countries are labour migrants, moving from countries with lower per capita GDP to ones with higher per capita GDP. Migration is also driven by political factors, notably conflict and instability; countries of the region host almost 40 per cent of the world's refugees. The pressures created by a changing climate are also driving migration, with people moving not only as an emergency but also proactively as an adaptation strategy.

In addition to the drivers, both regular and irregular migration are determined by facilitating facts, notably policy factors which may permit or constrain migration; the role played by recruitment agencies, who facilitate migration through legal and illegal methods; social networks, through which information flows, and cultures of migration are developed and sustained; and porous borders which allow people to enter, with or without authorization.

These factors result in migration taking multiple forms including permanent settlement in countries such as Australia, New Zealand and Singapore; temporary labour migration of low-skilled and low-status migrants within the region and beyond; seasonal employment of workers from the Pacific Island countries; and high-skilled migration. People, especially women, also migrate for marriage, and for study.

Irregular migration takes place across the region, including movements of labour migrants and forced migrants in mixed flows, which are characterized by vulnerability of all, while smuggling and trafficking in persons also occurs. Irregular migration is often the result of restrictions on migration, and puts the lives and human rights of migrants at risk.

IMPACTS OF MIGRATION

Migrants make major contributions across all aspects of development in both countries of origin and destination. The contributions do not solely benefit migrants themselves, but the communities they came

from, and the communities they live in abroad. However, there can be some negative impacts associated with migration, requiring policy measures to maximize the positive impacts and minimize the negative ones. In particular, as long as migrants are in a position of vulnerability to exploitation and abuse, the material benefits of migration for all parties are limited, and the process of building societies that are truly inclusive and capable of achieving sustainable development is hindered.

Economically, migration brings large volumes of remittances to countries of origin. Remittances to the region reached almost US$ 276 billion in 2017, and remittances are estimated to have contributed to poverty decline in countries such as Kyrgyzstan, where remittances account for over 30 per cent of GDP. Migration further eases labour market pressures for countries undergoing working-age population growth. These positive effects can be offset, however, by the potential for "brain drain" especially in key sectors such as health care. Returning migrants and diasporas bring potential benefits in terms of sharing of skills, knowledge and experience acquired in countries of destination.

Countries of destination primarily benefit from the work done by migrants which contributes to GDP growth. Migrants' contributions to growth in Thailand in 2013 contributed between 1.6 and 6.2 per cent of value-added. Evidence of negative impacts on national workers is limited; migrant workers complement national workers rather than competing with them. Indeed, evidence from Malaysia suggests that migrants create jobs for national workers rather than taking them away. However, action is necessary to ensure migrants are not used as an alternative to investment in increased productivity.

Considering a human rights perspective, migrants face significant risks throughout the migration process, from recruitment to return and through abusive practices by recruitment agents, employers and others. These abuses are facilitated by legal and capacity gaps which disempower migrants. Women migrant workers face particular risks in this regard, especially those working in domestic work. These risks are even more acute for migrants in an irregular situation.

Social impacts for migrants and their families can be significant, with migrants often excluded from social protection systems, and families left behind suffering from the consequences of separation.

LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORKS AND REGIONAL COOPERATION

Member States have wide latitude to set migration policies; however, international human rights law sets limits on the treatment of migrants, while cooperation is increasingly recognized as important in managing migration. Countries have adopted policies and laws, and created administrative structures to manage migration according to their unique circumstances. Countries of origin focus on placement and protection of migrant workers, while countries of destination aim to align migration to their development strategies and visions.

Bilateral cooperation through memoranda of understanding facilitate cooperation between countries of origin and destination, although the potential for their use is underexploited. At a regional level, cooperation initiatives such as the Eurasian Economic Union and the Association of South-East Asian Nations facilitate mobility between Member States through measures such as labour market integration and liberalization of the movement of service providers. Informal dialogue and cooperation through regional consultative processes on migration complement these formal processes by building trust and facilitating cooperation.

Subregional organizations that have already set up mechanisms for economic cooperation and integration, such as the Association for South-East Asian Nations and the Eurasian Economic Union could move further forward in facilitating safe, orderly, and regular migration and share their experiences with other subregional organizations.

At the international level, conventions such as the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and conventions of the International Labour Organization provide guidance on the treatment of migrants, notably with regards to their equal treatment with national workers. They have been supplemented by soft law frameworks and global dialogue processes, culminating in the inclusion of migration in specific targets in the 2030 Agenda and the adoption of the New York Declaration for Refugees and Migrants in September 2016, which has set the stage for cooperation on international migration in support of the 2030 Agenda.

SHAPING THE GLOBAL COMPACT ON MIGRATION: SOME RECOMMENDATIONS

Achieving the goal of safe, orderly and regular migration in the Asia-Pacific region should be a priority for the region, given the growing size and importance of migration for countries of origin and destination alike, and their shared interests in this area.

Reforms and concrete actions will be necessary across a range of areas as a part of this Global Compact for Safe, Orderly, and Regular Migration, including:

1   Creating more and simpler regular pathways for labour migration of low-skilled migrant workers, in line with countries' identified needs and development strategies and international human rights norms;

2   Ensuring the fair treatment of migrant workers in line with existing national labour regulations and human rights standards, including in informal sectors, such as domestic work;

3   Ensuring ethical recruitment with fair and transparent costs to avoid exposing migrants to situations of additional vulnerability;

4   Reducing remittance transaction costs and creating more regular remittance channels with low costs;

5   Creating opportunities for regular migration for those choosing to migrate as a climate change adaption strategy or those who are forced to migrate as a result of natural disasters;

6   Combating trafficking and smuggling of migrant workers through information campaigns, better law enforcement, regional and subregional cooperation, creating more opportunities for safe and regular migration, as well as through protection of victims of trafficking and smuggling;

7   Increasing multilateral and multi-stakeholder cooperation on international migration to ensure policy coherence to address international migration in a comprehensive and balanced fashion.

Actions in these areas can help to promote the rights of migrants and address their vulnerabilities, and should take place at all levels — global, regional, national and subnational. ESCAP is ready to work in collaboration with its partners to support the implementation of these actions, including through regional follow up and review of the Global Compact, given its unique situation as the regional development arm of the United Nations covering the whole Asia-Pacific region with the mandate to support regional cooperation towards sustainable development.

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Figures and tables

Glossary on migration

Asylum seeker: A person who seeks safety from persecution or serious harm in a country other than his or her own and awaits a decision on the application for refugee status under relevant international and national instruments. In case of a negative decision, the person must leave the country and may be expelled, as may any non-national in an irregular or unlawful situation, unless permission to stay is provided on humanitarian or other related grounds.

Bilateral labour migration agreement: Formal mechanisms concluded between States; agreements are essentially legally binding commitments concerned with inter-state cooperation on labour migration. The term is also used to describe less formal arrangements regulating the movement of workers between countries entered into by States as well as a range of other actors, including individual ministries, employer organizations, etc.

Brain drain: Emigration of trained and talented individuals from the country of origin to another country resulting in a depletion of skills resources in the former.

Citizen: A person, who, either by birth or naturalization, is a member of a political community, owing allegiance to the community and being entitled to enjoy all its civil and political rights and protection; a member of the State, entitled to all its privileges. A person enjoying the nationality of a given State.

Country of destination: The country that is a destination for migratory flows (regular or irregular).

Country of origin: The country that is a source of migratory flows (regular or irregular).

Forced labour: All work or service which is exacted from any person under the menace of any penalty and for which the said person has not offered himself/herself voluntarily.

Highly-skilled/qualified migrant: While there is no internationally agreed definition, migrant two overlapping meanings are often intended. In very general terms a highly skilled migrant is considered to be a person with tertiary education, typically an adult who has completed at least two years of postsecondary education. In a more specific sense, a highly skilled migrant is a person who has earned, either by tertiary level education or occupational experience, the level of qualifications typically needed to practice a profession.

International migration: Movement of persons who leave their country of origin, or the country of habitual residence, to establish themselves either permanently or temporarily in another country. An international frontier is therefore crossed.

Irregular migration: Movement that takes place outside the regulatory norms of the sending, transit and receiving countries. There is no clear or universally accepted definition of irregular migration. From the perspective of destination countries it is entry, stay or work in a country without the necessary authorization or documents required under immigration regulations. From the perspective of the sending country, the irregularity is for example seen in cases in which a person crosses an international boundary without a valid passport or travel document or does not fulfil the administrative requirements for leaving the country. There is, however, a tendency to restrict the use of the term "illegal migration" to cases of smuggling of migrants and trafficking in persons.

Labour migration: Movement of persons from one State to another, or within their own country of residence, for the purpose of employment. Labour migration is addressed by most States in their migration laws. In addition, some States take an active role in regulating outward labour migration and seeking opportunities for their nationals abroad.

Less/low skilled and semi-skilled migrant worker: There is no internationally agreed definition of a less or low skilled and semi-skilled migrant worker. In broad terms, a semi-skilled worker is considered to be a person who requires a degree of training or familiarization with the job before being able to operate at maximum/optimal efficiency, although this training is not of the length or intensity required for designation as a skilled (or craft) worker, being measured in weeks or days rather than years, nor is it normally at the tertiary level. Many so-called

"manual workers" (e.g. production, construction workers) should therefore be classified as semi-skilled. A less or low-skilled worker, on the other hand, is considered to be a person who has received less training than a semiskilled worker or, having not received any training, has still acquired his or her competence on the job.

Migrant: At the international level, no universally accepted definition for "migrant" exists. The term migrant was usually understood to cover all cases where the decision to migrate was taken freely by the individual concerned for reasons of "personal convenience" and without intervention of an external compelling factor; it therefore applied to persons, and family members, moving to another country or region to better their material or social conditions and improve the prospect for themselves or their family. The United Nations defines migrant as an individual who has resided in a foreign country for more than one year irrespective of the causes, voluntary or involuntary, and the means, regular or irregular, used to migrate. Under such a definition, those travelling for shorter periods as tourists and businesspersons would not be considered migrants. However, common usage includes certain kinds of shorter-term migrants, such as seasonal farm-workers who travel for short periods to work planting or harvesting farm products.

Migrant flow: The number of migrants counted as moving or being authorized to move, to or from a given location in a defined period of time.

Migrant stock: The number of migrants residing in a country at a particular point in time.

Migration management: A term used to encompass numerous governmental functions within a national system for the orderly and humane management for cross-border migration, particularly managing the entry and presence of foreigners within the borders of the State and the protection of refugees and others in need of protection. It refers to a planned approach to the development of policy, legislative and administrative responses to key migration issues.

Mixed flow: Complex migratory population movements that include refugees, asylum-seekers, economic migrants and other migrants, as opposed to migratory population movements that consist entirely of one category of migrants.

Net migration: Difference between the number of persons entering the territory of a State and the number of persons who leave the territory in the same period. Also called "migratory balance." This balance is called net immigration when arrivals exceed departures, and net emigration when departures exceed arrivals.

Permanent resident: A non-national benefiting from the right of permanent residence in a host State.

Permanent settler: Legally admitted immigrants who are accepted to settle in the receiving country, including persons admitted for the purpose of family reunion.

Refugee: A person who, "owing to a well-founded fear of persecution for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinions, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country. (Art. 1(A) (2), Convention relating to the Status of Refugees, Art. 1A(2), 1951 as modified by the 1967 Protocol). In addition to the refugee definition in the 1951 Refugee Convention, Art. 1(2), 1969 Organization of African Unity (OAU) Convention defines a refugee as any person compelled to leave his or her country "owing to external aggression, occupation, foreign domination or events seriously disturbing public order in either part or the whole of his country or origin or nationality." Similarly, the 1984 Cartagena Declaration states that refugees also include persons who flee their country "because their lives, security or freedom have been threatened by generalized violence, foreign aggression, internal conflicts, massive violations of human rights or other circumstances which have seriously disturbed public order.

Regular migration: Migration that occurs through recognized, authorized channels.

Remittance: Monies earned or acquired by non-nationals that are transferred back to their country of origin.

Seasonal migrant worker/migration: A migrant worker whose work, or migration for employment, is by its character dependent on seasonal conditions and is performed only during part of the year (Art. 2(2) (b), International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families, 1990).

Smuggled migrant: A migrant who is enabled, through providing financial or material benefit to another person, to gain illegal entry into a State of which he or she is not a national or a permanent resident.

Statelessness: The condition of an individual who is not considered as a national by any State under its domestic law. Statelessness may result from a number of causes including conflict of laws, the transfer of territory, marriage laws, administrative practices, discrimination, lack of birth registration, denationalization (when a State rescinds an individual's nationality) and renunciation (when an individual refuses the protection of the State).

Temporary labour migration: Migration of workers who enter a foreign country for a specified limited period of time before returning to the country of origin.

Trafficking in persons: "The recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation" (Art. 3(a), UN Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, Supplementing the UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, 2000). Trafficking in persons can take place within the borders of one State or may have a transnational character.

Xenophobia: At the international level, no universally accepted definition of xenophobia exists, though it can be described as attitudes, prejudices and behaviour that reject, exclude and often vilify persons, based on the perception that they are outsiders or foreigners to the community, society or national identity. There is a close link between racism and xenophobia, two terms that can be hard to differentiate from each other.

Source: International Organization for Migration (IOM), *Glossary on Migration* (2nd Edition, 2011).

Acronyms and abbreviations

ASEAN   Association of Southeast Asian Nations

ESCAP   United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific

GCC   Cooperation Council for the Arab States of the Gulf

GDP   gross domestic product

ILO   International Labour Organization

IOM   International Organization for Migration

OECD   Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development

SAARC   South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation

UNDP   United Nations Development Programme

UNHCR   United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees

UNODC   United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime

US$ United States dollars

USSR   Union of Soviet Socialist Republics

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Introduction

International migration has been a key defining feature of external linkages of countries in the Asia-Pacific region for centuries. From migrants travelling in search of markets or goods in the times of the Silk and Spice Routes, to indentured workers sent from Asia to other countries in the region and beyond in the colonial era, to movements in search of education and jobs in the contemporary Asia-Pacific region, the nature of migration has evolved over time. Throughout these periods, the drivers, directions, and pathways of migration have changed, but the role of migration remains in influencing social and economic change, influencing tastes, languages, and cultural practices; building links between disparate places; and helping to shape the history of the region.

The modern era is no different. Since the turn of the millennium, the numbers of migrants to and from the region have continued to grow due to changing demographics and resulting labour shortages, economic transformations and increased connectivity, as well the influence of instability and conflict, and emerging drivers such as climate change. With over 101 million migrants living outside their countries of origin from the region, and with over 62 million international migrants living in the region, the Asia-Pacific region is the largest contributor to international migration globally. The region also accounted for almost US$ 276 billion (or 62 per cent) of the US$ 444 billion in global remittances sent by migrant workers to their countries of origin in 2017.

In recent decades, Asian and Pacific countries have pioneered innovative migration policies and programmes and have shown great dynamism in addressing new migration situations. Countries such as the Philippines have been actively involved in managing labour migration processes since the 1970s, with the aim of maximizing the benefits of migration while maintaining the best interests of their workers at heart. As new opportunities arose, other countries, for instance Bangladesh, followed in actively supporting their workers abroad. Some countries, such as Thailand or the Republic of Korea, also turned from primarily countries of out-migration to countries of in-migration, putting them in a position where they had to adopt policies and procedures to address new circumstances. Others, such as the countries of the former Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR), had to find new ways to deal with people on their territory whose status had changed as borders sprung up.

Looking forward, countries of the Asia-Pacific region will have to continue to innovate. Climate change will affect communities across the region, not only in the low-lying small island developing States in the Pacific and Indian ocean, but in countries throughout the region. Migration from these countries can play a role, not only as a response to climate-related crises, but also as a means of helping communities adapt to the impacts of climate change. Population ageing will create new demands for workers either to replace retiring workers or to work in sectors such as care. As connectivity gaps are filled, people are likely to move along with goods. Furthermore, continued economic dynamism in the region is likely to lead to new countries becoming destinations for migrants, necessitating novel adjustments to ensure the appropriate legal frameworks and capacities are in place.

These trends bring opportunities for greater interconnectedness, mutual understanding and sharing the proceeds of prosperity; but they also bring challenges. Countries of origin have to address the social consequences of large numbers of working-age people living and working abroad, thus changing community structures and making new demands on social protection systems, as well as potentially creating labour market gaps. They further have to consider how to ensure the protection and inclusion of these migrants while abroad, and their reintegration on return. Countries of destination, meanwhile, have to ensure that their legal and policy frameworks are aligned with the realities in their countries, and take action to prevent xenophobia, abuse and exploitation.

Fortunately, countries can now draw on more than a decade of dialogue, international cooperation and research to help them to understand the multiple impacts of migration, and to build consensus on the necessary actions to ensure that migration takes place in a safe, orderly and regular framework. This would be in support of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and to the benefit all stakeholders — countries of origin and destination, and migrants themselves. In the New York Declaration for Refugees and Migrants, adopted in September 2016, Member States set themselves the goal of adopting a global compact for safe, orderly and regular migration by 2018.

This report draws on research carried out in preparation for the Asia-Pacific Regional Preparatory Meeting for the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration to provide a snapshot of key migration trends and priority issues in Asia and the Pacific. The report aims to support that process by providing an analysis of trends and patterns on migration in the Asia-Pacific region, its impacts and policy responses, as well as providing recommendations for the global compact to serve as a background document for the Asia-Pacific Regional Preparatory Meeting for the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration. Its layout is as follows: Chapter 1 provides an analysis of trends and trajectories based on the latest estimates of migration stocks from and in Asia and the Pacific; Chapter 2 overviews the drivers and key pathways of migration; and Chapter 3, the impacts of migration. Chapter 4 summarizes the policy responses at national and multilateral levels. It concludes with recommendations for consideration as part of the process of developing the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration.

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Migration trends and trajectories in the Asia-Pacific region

Trends and patterns in migrant stocks provide insights into the trajectories of migration in the Asia-Pacific region. According to most recent estimates, over 62 million people living in Asia and the Pacific in 2017 were born outside their country of residence. The number of migrants in the region has increased by about a quarter over the past 12 years. This shows that migration is clearly a growing phenomenon in the region. The number of migrants increased steadily in South-East Asia, reflecting that some countries in this subregion have become countries of in-migration, such as Malaysia and Thailand (see figure 1).

Over 101 million migrants worldwide originate from countries of the region (figures 2 and 3). Trends in out-migration show a steady increase in the number of migrants from countries in the Asia-Pacific region, especially over the past decade. This has been brought about by a sharp increase in migrants from South and South-West Asia, coupled with the number of migrants from countries in North and Central Asia remaining constant. In the case of North and Central Asia, the apparent stagnation is likely due to the effects of return migration of people to the country of their titular ethnicity that occurred after the break-up of the USSR; the numbers of labour migrants to

FIGURE 1. MIGRANTS IN ASIA-PACIFIC COUNTRIES, 1990–2017
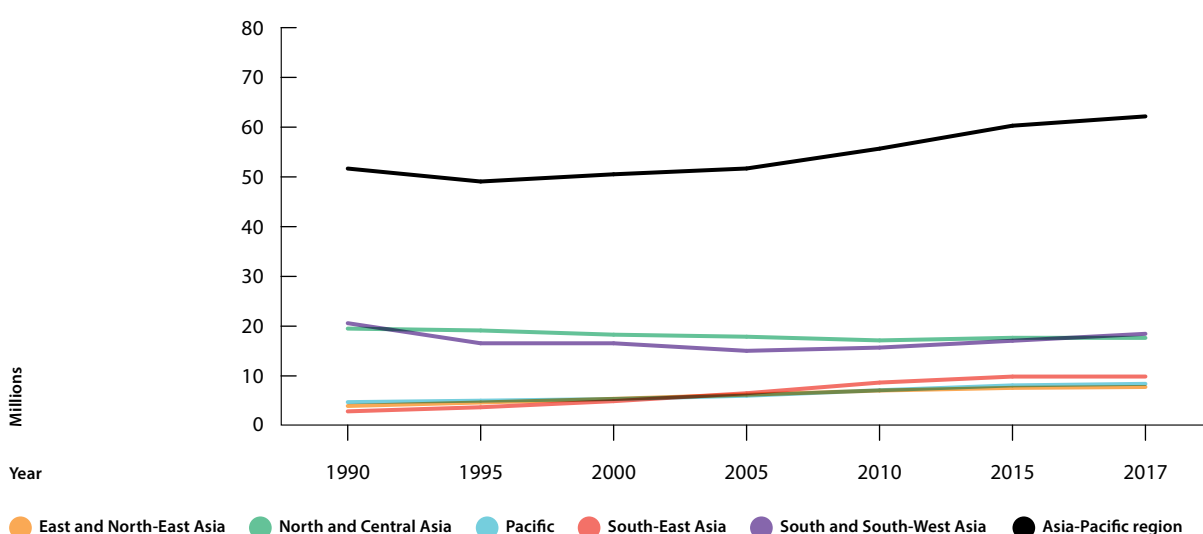
Source: United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2017). *Trends in International Migrant Stock: The 2017 revision* (data for 2017 forthcoming, United Nations database, POP/DB/MIG/Stock/Rev.2017).

FIGURE 2. MIGRANTS FROM ASIA-PACIFIC COUNTRIES, 1990–2017
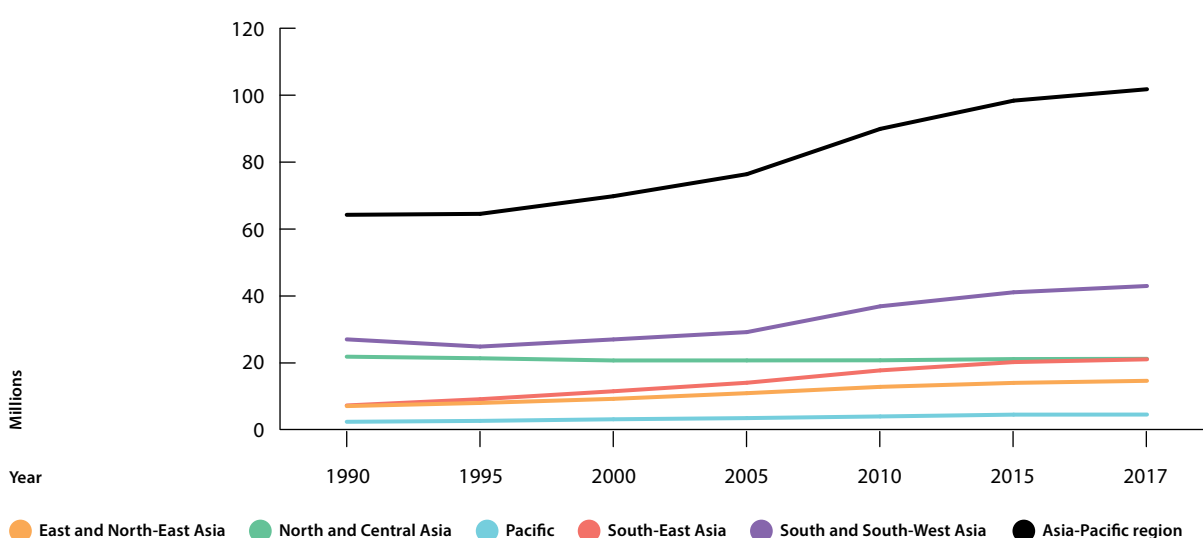
Source: United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2017). *Trends in International Migrant Stock: The 2017 revision* (data for 2017 forthcoming, United Nations database, POP/DB/MIG/Stock/Rev.2017).

FIGURE 3. TOP 15 COUNTRIES OF ORIGIN OF MIGRANTS IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC, 2000, 2010, AND 2017
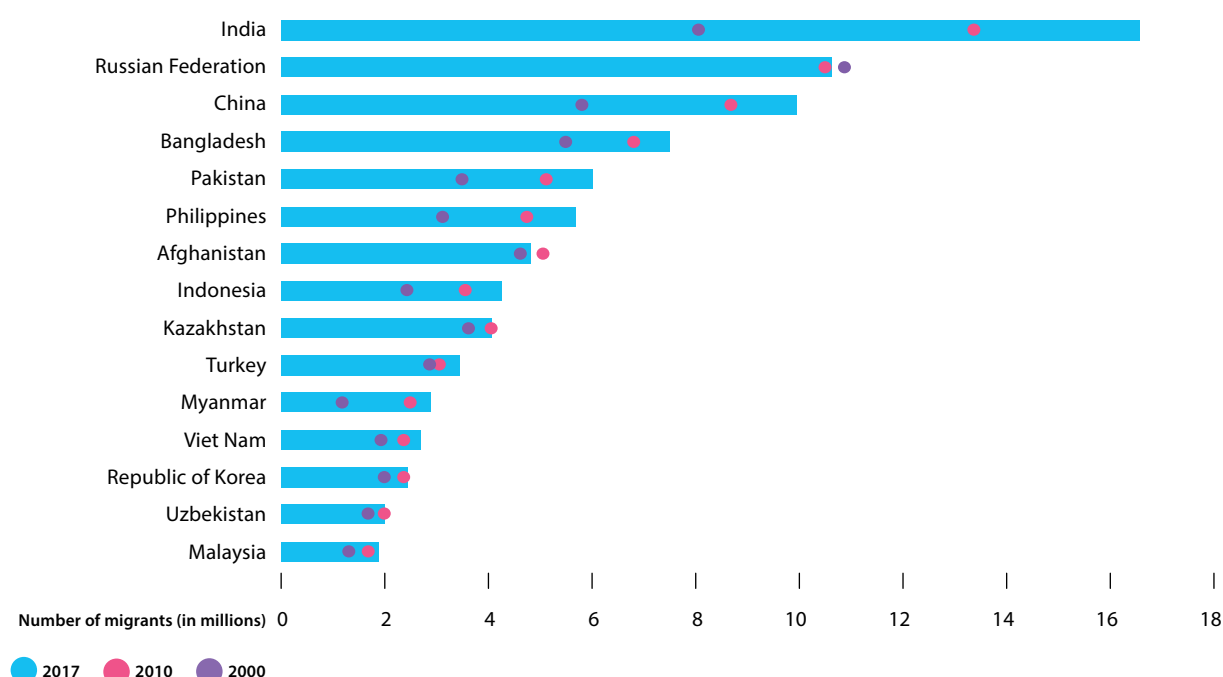
Source: United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2017). *Trends in International Migrant Stock: The 2017 revision* (data for 2017 forthcoming, United Nations database, POP/DB/MIG/Stock/Rev.2017).

the Russian Federation and Kazakhstan have actually increased since the turn of the millennium.

Out-migration patterns also vary by country. In 2017, India was the country with the largest number of migrants abroad, followed by the Russian Federation. In 2017, 16.6 million people born in India and 10.6 million born in the Russian Federation were living abroad (see figure 3). While the number of migrants from India more than doubled between 2010 and 2017, the number of migrants originating from the Russian Federation remained stable. The numbers of migrants from China, Bangladesh, Pakistan and the Philippines living abroad have also increased significantly over time.

The main countries of destination of migrants are, depending on countries' histories, current events and connections, which determine migration pathways (see chapter 2). However, a common trend is that most migration is South-South migration. Over 56 per cent of migrants from the Asia-Pacific region lived in developing or least-developed countries in 2015, with some countries of origin showing very

high proportions, such as Afghanistan (90 per cent), Bangladesh (91 per cent), Indonesia (89 per cent), Myanmar (94 per cent) and Nepal (88 per cent).[1]

Of the top 15 countries of destination in the region (figure 4), it is only in Australia that most of the migrant stock is comprised of primarily permanent residents. In Brunei Darussalam, Kazakhstan, Malaysia, Republic of Korea and Thailand, migrants are mostly low-skilled temporary labour migrants from neighbouring countries or countries in the same subregion.[2] In Singapore, permanent settlement is reserved for highly-skilled migrants, while low skilled workers can only migrate as temporary labour migrants. In the Russian Federation, the migrant stock consists of a mix between ethnic Russians who were born in the now independent former Soviet Republics and who repatriated after the dissolution of the USSR, and often low-skilled temporary migrants who migrated to the Russian Federation in the last decade. The sizable foreign-born populations of the Islamic Republic of Iran, Pakistan and Turkey are largely composed of refugees.[3] Lastly, in India and Pakistan,

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1   United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2017). *Trends in International Migrant Stock: The 2017 revision* (United Nations database, POP/DB/ MIG/Stock/Rev.2017).

2   Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP), *Asia-Pacific Migration Report 2015: Migrants' Contributions to Development* (ST/ ESCAP/2738).

3   In preparing estimates of the migrant stock, the United Nations considers those who were born in a country other than where they are residing ("foreign born") to be international migrants. As many of the 11 million migrants in the Russian Federation were born in countries that were part of the former republics of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, they would not have been considered internal migrants prior to the Union's dissolution in 1991. Similarly, the large numbers of migrants in India and Pakistan are also partially explained by the partition of the subcontinent at the time of their independence in 1947.

the "foreign-born" population goes back to the time of the partition between the countries.

Although the overall migrant stock is increasing in the Asia-Pacific region, the scale and rate of change is specific to country circumstances. In some countries, such as the Russian Federation, the number of migrants has not changed significantly over the past decades. The number of the foreign-born population in Turkey has more than tripled as a result of the large number of refugees in the country, particularly since 2015. In India, the number of the foreign-born population is decreasing gradually, because many of those who moved to India after the partition, are passing away.

Some countries are simultaneously among the top 15 countries of origin and destination in the region, such as the Russian Federation, India, Pakistan and Turkey. The reason is that migration flows happen in different times and for different reasons. For instance, many people from Turkey migrated to work in Europe in the 1960s and 1970s and largely settled there, while Turkey recently became a destination country for refugees and asylum seekers, as well as for labour migrants, albeit to a smaller extent.

Age composition of migrants

Looking at the age composition of migrants helps to draw conclusions on migration trajectories and related policies that countries of destination may have to adopt in order to address migration.

In the Maldives, the Republic of Korea and Malaysia, more than 85 per cent of the foreign-born population is of working age. A large proportion of migrants to these countries are temporary labour migrants.

CHILD MIGRANTS

Child migrants are considered as among the most vulnerable group among migrants and require specific policies, as those promoting access to education. Child migrants may be grouped into three categories: (a) those who migrated with family members; (b) those born at the destination to migrant parents; and (c) those who migrated alone or with persons other than family members.

FIGURE 4. TOP 15 COUNTRIES OF DESTINATION OF MIGRANTS IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC, 2000, 2010, AND 2017
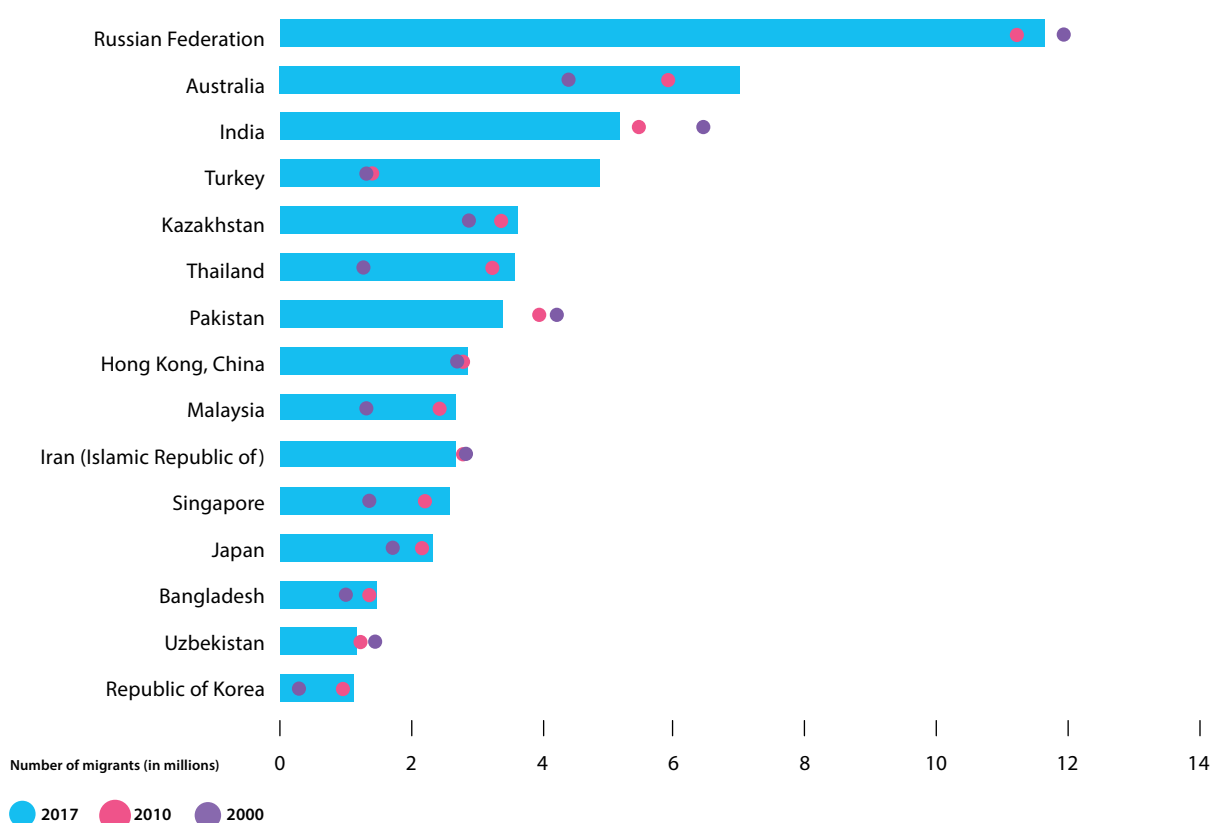
Number of migrants (in millions)

● 2017 ● 2010 ● 2000

Source: United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2017). *Trends in International Migrant Stock: The 2017 revision* (data for 2017 forthcoming, United Nations database, POP/DB/MIG/Stock/Rev.2017).

Data on child migrants do not fully reflect the situation of vulnerability. On the one hand, children born to migrant parents at the destination country are not considered international migrants, but the law and authorities in many countries treat them as such. Further, they often face the same issues as foreign-born children who had migrated, such as lack of access to education and health care. On the other hand, some may be citizens of the country who were born abroad. Although they may face some issues of reintegration, they usually have access to services such as citizens.

The number of migrants who are younger than 20, and thus still considered "minors" in many countries, is about 8 million, or 13 per cent of all migrants in the Asia-Pacific region. Turkey hosts 1.4 million migrants who are 19 or younger; the figures in the Russian Federation and the Islamic Republic of Iran are about 800,000 and 725,000, respectively. The majority of child migrants to Turkey and the Islamic Republic of Iran are most likely refugees having migrated either with their families or alone.

Of significant concern is the large number of minor migrants who are in irregular status. For example, during a regularization exercise for migrants in Thailand in 2004, more than 93,000 people who registered were under the age of 15 years.[4] Even if the host country provides for universal education, as is the case in Thailand, the result of family, economic and community barriers is that only a small fraction of migrant children enrol in formal education. In most countries of destination in Asia and the Pacific, low-skilled migrants are not permitted to bring dependents with them. Thus, children who accompany or are born to low-skilled migrants are in an irregular status and are not always visible in official statistics. They may further be vulnerable to the worst forms of child labour, as well as detention as irregular migrants.

Minors can also migrate independently. In some cases, minors leave their families and countries of their own accord in search of a better life; in other cases it is reported that families save to support the migration of minors abroad. Many minors also fall victim to human trafficking.

FIGURE 5. AGE COMPOSITION OF MIGRANTS, PERCENTAGE, BY BROAD AGE GROUP IN SELECTED COUNTRIES OF THE ASIA-PACIFIC REGION, 2017

Percentage of age composition

- 0–19 years old
- 20–64 years old
- 65 years and older

Source: United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2017). *Trends in International Migrant Stock: The 2017 revision* (data for 2017 forthcoming, United Nations database, POP/DB/MIG/Stock/Rev.2017).
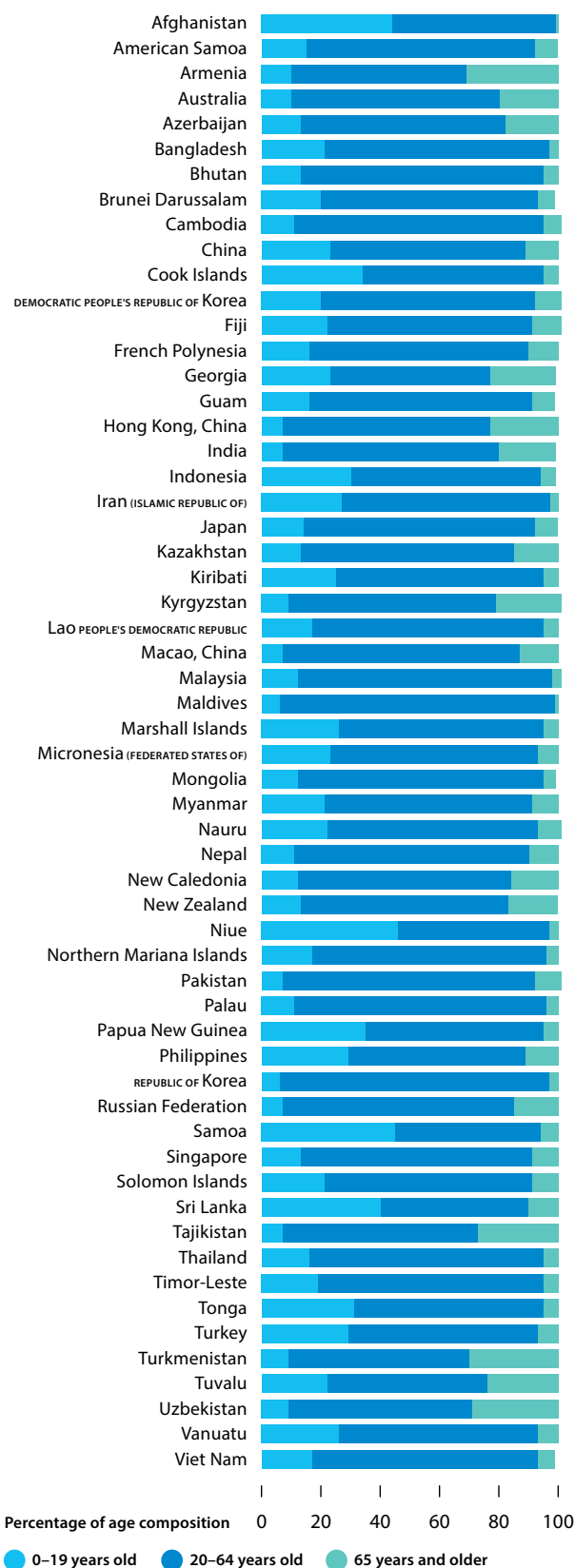
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4   Andy West, *Children on the Move in South-East Asia: Why Child Protection Systems are Needed* (London, Save the Children, 2008).

OLDER MIGRANTS

Migration opportunities for older persons are limited. In most cases, migration occurs during working age for employment abroad. If older persons migrate it is mostly a result of conflict. In such situations, older refugees are among the most vulnerable. Many people who work for prolonged periods abroad return to their country of origin when they are old. However, once returned, they do not appear as migrants in the country of origin, as they are not "foreign-born", despite the fact that they may face challenges due to their lack of access to social protection either in countries of origin or destination.

A relatively "old" migrant stock in a country does not necessarily mean that a large number of older persons migrated to it. In most cases, it implies that people migrated to the country a relatively long time ago and settled there. In such cases it is also likely that the migrant stock will decrease over the next decades. Some also show up as "statistical migrants", although they never actually crossed borders in their lifetime. Most countries with an "old" foreign born population are in North and Central Asia, as well as India. In both cases, this is likely to represent the historical legacy of partition of the Indian subcontinent and the USSR.

WOMEN AND MIGRATION

The migration patterns of women often differ from those of men, resulting in diverse migration experiences and outcomes. Understanding of the gender dimensions of international migration is often hampered by a lack of data disaggregated by sex. Even when the percentage of women among all migrants is known, tabulations of migrants by country of destination or by occupation may not present the information by sex. When a significant share of migration is undocumented, the perception of migration patterns gained from official data might be distorted. This is especially relevant where restrictions on female migration lead them to resort disproportionately to irregular migration channels.

Although in the Asia-Pacific region as a whole 50.5 per cent of the foreign-born population in 2017 were women, the percentage varies by destination country, ranging from 69.4 per cent in Nepal to

12.3 per cent in the Maldives.[5] The reason behind these differences can be the type of migration that dominates. Nepal is often a destination for marriage migration, where typically women relocate when they marry. The Maldives is a destination for many male migrant workers. Women constitute about half of all migrants in Australia and New Zealand, where most migrants are permanent settlers. Women also comprise high percentages of migrants in destinations such as Hong Kong, China (61 per cent), and Singapore (56 per cent), where they are often employed as domestic workers.[6]

Gender differences are much greater with regard to temporary migrant workers. In many countries, women make up low proportions of workers migrating through official channels. The proportion of women formally deployed from Bangladesh in 2016 was around 25 per cent, although this represented a rapid increase from only 4 per cent in 2007.[7] Similarly, of the countries of North and Central Asia, Kyrgyzstan showed the highest level of female migrants in the Russian Federation, at 38 per cent, whereas for other major countries of origin, such as Tajikistan and Uzbekistan, the figures were only 18 and 16 per cent, respectively.[8]

Because of the demand in destination countries — such as Hong Kong, China; Singapore; and the countries of the Cooperation Council for the Arab States of the Gulf (GCC) — very high proportions of women migrants are employed as domestic workers (over 80 per cent of those from Sri Lanka, for example).[9] Even when poorly paid, domestic workers may have a significant impact on their families' welfare through remittances. Research consistently shows that women tend to remit on a more regular basis and a higher proportion of their earnings than men. It has been estimated that women migrants are providing support to about 20 per cent of the population of Sri Lanka.[10]

Despite the gains achieved by low-skilled women migrants, they are particularly vulnerable because of their status as women, often coming from poor families and with low levels of education and skill. Moreover, for domestic workers, vulnerability results from being employed in isolated workplaces in a sector not usually covered by labour regulations in countries of destination. In recognition of the specific

5   United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2017). *Trends in International Migrant Stock: The 2017 revision* (United Nations database, POP/DB/ MIG/Stock/Rev.2017).

6   *International Migration 2015* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.16.XIII.12).

7   Bangladesh, Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training, "Overseas employment of female Workers from 1991 to 2017 (up to July)". Available from www.bmet.org.bd/BMET/stattisticalDataAction#.

8   Anna Rocheva. "Migration from Central Asia to Russia: Gender Dimension" (forthcoming).

9   See www.slbfe.lk/file.php?FID=254.

10   United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women, *Contributions of migrant domestic workers to sustainable development* (Bangkok, 2013), p. 15.

vulnerabilities of domestic workers, ILO adopted the ILO Domestic Workers Convention, 2011 (No. 189), which calls for domestic workers to be covered by international labour standards and receive fair wages and other benefits.

This focus on the protection of low-skilled female workers should not obscure the fact that highly skilled women are also involved in migration. Data from OECD countries in 2010/11 suggest that of around 16 million women born in the Asia-Pacific region and living in OECD countries, over 6 million (38 per cent) had a tertiary degree or higher, a similar proportion to male migrants.

Data needs for migration policymaking

Despite the strong policy needs for statistics on international migration, large data gaps exist in the region. Out of 43 Asian countries that have conducted at least one population census between 2005 and 2014, only 16 were able to provide some data on stock of international migrants to the United Nations Demographic Yearbook. Data on migration flows are also scarce — only around 10 out of 48 Asian countries provided some information on inflows and outflows to the Demographic Yearbook.

The lack of migration data in the region is attributed to multiple reasons. In some countries it may reflect dearth of capacity to gather these data, or lack of awareness on their importance. In other countries, however, it may be primarily due to the lack of coordination within and between Government offices and other actors which produce different migration statistics. Finally, much migration within the Asia-Pacific region is undocumented, hidden from both country of origin and destination authorities through clandestine border crossing or work without authorization following regular entry. Another challenge faced by countries lies in the collection of emigration data; this relies on effective data-sharing between countries of origin and destination, which often does not occur in practice.

Responding to the lack of migration statistics in countries, the United Nations Secretary-General, in his report on migration statistics to the forty-fifth session of the Statistical Commission (E/CN.3/2014/20), held in March 2014, observed that more needed to be done (1) to encourage the tabulation, dissemination of census data on international migration, (2) to foster coordination within national statistical systems so that data generated from administrative sources are disseminated, and (3) to provide technical assistance to enhance the statistical capacity of countries.

Improving national capacity in producing and using statistics on international migration also corresponds directly to the Sustainable Development Goal Target 17.18 which calls for enhancing "capacity building support to developing countries to increase significantly the availability of high quality, timely and reliable data disaggregated by… migratory status", among others, as key to delivering on the commitment in the 2030 Agenda to leave no one behind.

Concluding remarks

The snapshot of migration trends presented above clearly shows that migration is on the rise across the region, albeit unevenly. The data further show that the migrant stock in the Asia-Pacific region is diverse, composed of different age groups and comprising a slight majority of female migrants, reflecting the different drivers underlying migration. The need for improving the evidence base on migration in the region has also been highlighted. The next chapter discusses drivers of migration and pathways which allow for more detailed inferences on policies that need to be adopted in countries of origin and destination, as well as required actions at the global level.

CHAPTER II

Migration drivers and pathways in the Asia-Pacific region

Migration in the Asia-Pacific region is an outcome of a complex interplay of drivers and facilitators, which result in different forms and directions of migration. Understanding the drivers of migration and facilitating factors is important for the design of policies for safe, orderly and regular migration. Creating more accessible opportunities for regular and safe migration, for instance, can reduce the use of illegal channels and opportunities for criminal practices and help prevent the exploitation and abuse of migrants. This chapter considers the drivers of migration and the resulting pathways that migration takes in Asia and the Pacific.

Drivers of migration

Drivers of migration can be divided into factors that drive the desire to migrate and factors that actually lead to the inception of migration.

ECONOMIC AND DEMOGRAPHIC DRIVERS

There have been many discussions in the relevant literature on the extent to which poverty is a driver of migration. It is often not the poorest of the poor who migrate, because migration requires considerable upfront costs. Indeed, the costs of migration are often significant and as high as over US$ 5,000 for migrants from Pakistan going to Saudi Arabia.[11]

The reality in the Asia-Pacific region, where migrants often accept precarious working conditions in the destination country, shows that the expectation of gaining relatively higher wages largely drives the desire to migrate.

Indeed, migration in Asia and the Pacific is primarily from economies with low per capita income to richer countries with economies offering the opportunity to earn higher wages. As figure 6 shows, countries with lower per-capita Gross Domestic Product (GDP) are more likely to have negative net migration rates, with more people leaving the country than entering it; high-GDP per capita countries are more likely to have positive net migration, showing higher levels of in-migration.

While migration may not address issues of structural poverty, it can particularly benefit households in addressing transient poverty, providing additional and higher sources of income.

Households benefit economically from migration through remittances, which support consumption and can contribute to better health and education outcomes through increased investment.[12] Thus, migration is sometimes considered a livelihood strategy.

FIGURE 6. NET MIGRATION RATES 2010–2015 AND GDP PER CAPITA IN THE ASIA-PACIFIC REGION, LATEST YEARS AVAILABLE
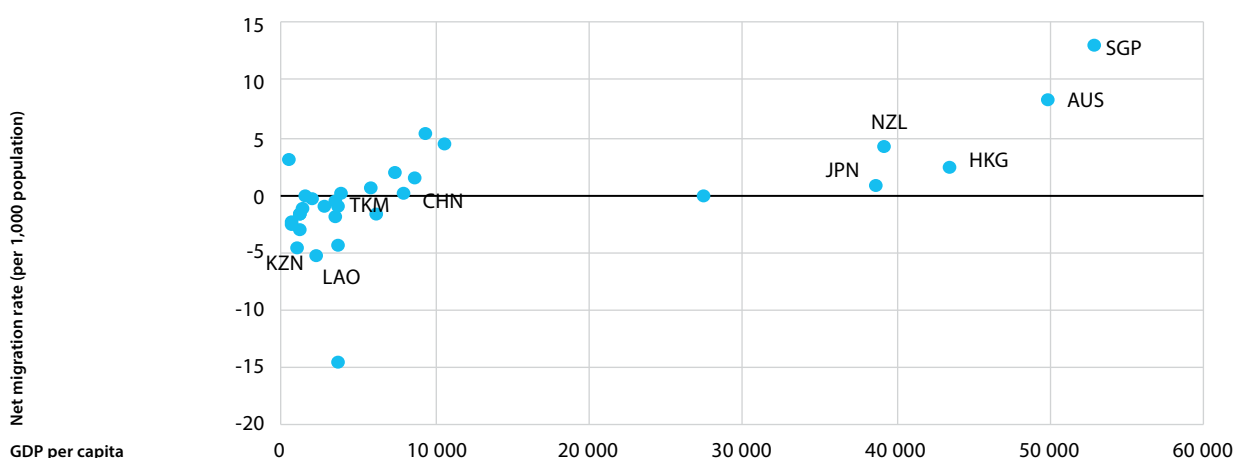
Source: ESCAP based on United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, *World Population Prospects* (2017) and World Bank (2017).

11 World Bank, *Migration and development brief 28: Migration and remittances, recent developments and outlook* (Washington, D.C., 2017). Available from http://www.knomad.org/sites/default/files/2017-10/Migration%20and%20Development%20Brief%2028.pdf

12 Geoffrey Ducanes, "The welfare impact of overseas migration on Philippine households: analysis using panel data", *Asian and Pacific Migration Journal*, vol. 24, No. 1 (March 2015), pp. 79-106; and Md. Nurul Islam, "Migration from Bangladesh and overseas employment policy" (Dhaka, Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training, n.d.) (available from www.bmet.gov.bd/BMET/resources/Static%20PDF%20and%20DOC/publication/Migration-BOEP.pdf).

Demographic factors also drive migration flows, especially in countries with a sizeable proportion of young people lacking decent work opportunities. Most migrants are of a younger working age, so economies in which that segment of the population is contracting generally attract migrants, whereas countries in which the number of young workers is growing rapidly tend to experience net out-migration. This shows that migration can be a way to help reduce youth unemployment, as well as manage labour market gaps which appear as a result of population ageing.

POLITICAL DRIVERS

Many people are forced to move and seek refuge abroad because of conflict, political persecution, human rights violations or statelessness. As a result of long conflict, the largest numbers of refugees from the Asia-Pacific region, originate from Afghanistan (figure 7).

In 2016, Asia and the Pacific hosted over 6.5 million refugees and persons in refugee-like situations, almost 40 per cent of the 17.2 million refugees in the world. Three countries host almost three quarters of the refugees in the Asia-Pacific region, namely Turkey (approximately 2.9 million), Pakistan (approximately 1.4 million) and the Islamic Republic of Iran (nearly 1.0 million) (see figure 8). Turkey and Pakistan are currently hosting the largest number of refugees in the world, with the Islamic Republic of Iran ranking fourth.[13]

Most refugees hosted in the Asia-Pacific region originated from Afghanistan (approximately 2.3 million) and the Syrian Arab Republic (approximately 2.8 million). In 2016, in terms of number of refugees, Afghanistan was the second largest source country in the world, with more than 2.5 million Afghans living as refugees abroad. Although there are return programmes from the Islamic Republic of Iran and Pakistan, Afghans continue to leave their country, and the situation of Afghan refugees remains one of the most protracted in the world. Turkey has become

FIGURE 7. KEY COUNTRIES OF ORIGIN OF REFUGEES FROM THE ASIA-PACIFIC REGION, 2016
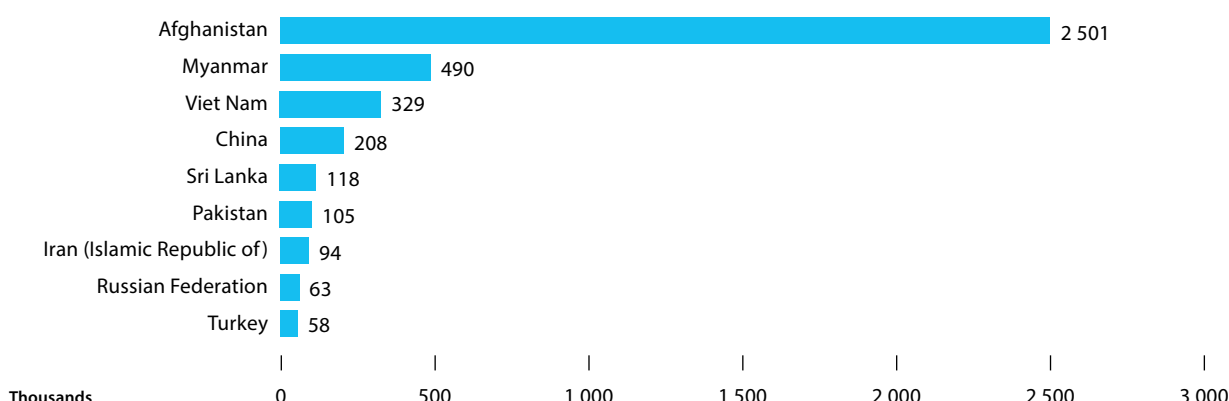
Source: ESCAP based on UNHCR statistics database, accessed 30 October 2017. UNHCR, *Global Trends: Forced Displacement in 2016* (Geneva, 2017). Available from www.unhcr.org/5943e8a34.

FIGURE 8. TOP TEN HOST COUNTRIES OF REFUGEES IN THE ASIA-PACIFIC REGION, 2016
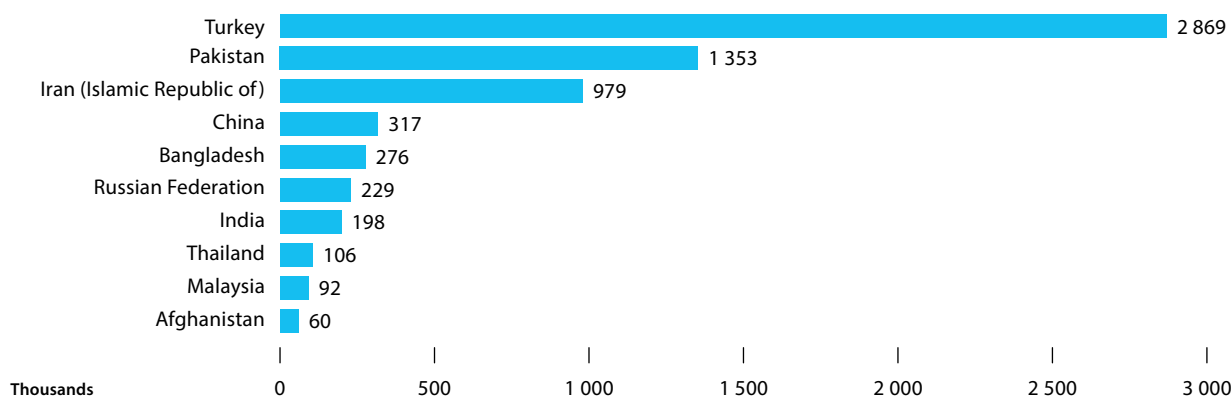
Source: ESCAP based on UNHCR statistics database, accessed 13 October 2017.

13   UNHCR, *Global Trends: Forced Displacement in 2016* (Geneva, 2017). Available from www.unhcr.org/5943e8a34.

a large-scale recipient of refugees since 2012, with the arrival of considerable numbers of refugees from the Syrian Arab Republic.

Even in those cases, income status and opportunity determine to where people migrate. In case of conflict, people often migrate to neighbouring countries first, while other factors determine their ability to move to other countries. For example, refugees from the Syrian Arab Republic were initially forced to move on to Turkey due to the conflict in their country of origin; however, as their position in Turkey became more precarious, they began to seek to move to the European Union hoping to find work, security and long-term stability.

ENVIRONMENTAL DRIVERS

As the natural environment becomes more stressed, some environmental changes — for example, increased numbers and intensity of extreme weather events, deforestation and land degradation — are likely to prompt increased cross-border migration. Although environmental degradation is rarely a sole cause of migration, it can add to pressures to migrate by reducing people's resilience. There is particularly acute concern for the potential impact of environmental change in the Pacific, as sea-level rise can inundate small islands and low-lying atolls, potentially affecting entire populations and raising significant legal, social and cultural challenges. The impacts of more frequent droughts and tropical cyclones of greater magnitude are likely to be felt sooner than those attributable to rising sea level.

Voluntary migration has the potential to be a climate change adaptation strategy. It can reduce population pressure in areas under environmental stress, provide a means of diversifying income for families vulnerable to climate change and offset the risk that would be associated with environmental displacement. For example, Kiribati is threatened by expected rises in the sea level. The Government has developed a number of strategies to reduce the country's vulnerability to climate change, including migration with dignity, which aims to forge expatriate communities in such countries as Australia and New Zealand, and to improve the level of educational and vocational skills of its nationals so that they will have opportunities for migration.[14] Given this positive role for migration as a means of adaptation, a significant concern is then for those who lack the means to migrate, as they are likely to be the most exposed to the impacts of climate change.

BOX

CLIMATE CHANGE AND MIGRATION IN THE PACIFIC

The ESCAP-administered project "Enhancing the capacity of Pacific Island Countries to address the impacts of climate change on migration" aimed to increase protection of individuals and communities that are vulnerable to climate change displacement and migration through targeted national and regional policies and to increase regional mobility through well-managed labour migration schemes.

The project covered the Federated States of Micronesia, Kiribati, Nauru, Republic of Marshall Islands, Palau, Papua New Guinea, Samoa, Solomon Islands, Tonga, Tuvalu and Vanuatu. It generated primary data on the relationship between climate change and other drivers of migration, finding for example that climate change-induced migration was already occurring in Tuvalu. The project also carried out capacity enhancing activities in Kiribati, Tuvalu and Nauru, driven by the needs of local communities as identified in the project surveys. These in-country activities were important mechanisms for ensuring that local communities' views, needs and priorities on climate change migration were filtered through to governments, and able to be given due consideration in policy formulation. This element of the project resulted in national policies on migration being adopted in Kiribati and Tuvalu. The project also facilitated regional dialogue on the critical issues facing the region with respect to climate change induced migration, including through a regional meeting on climate change and migration in the Pacific.

The project was implemented in partnership with ILO and UNDP, and with funding from the European Union.

Factors facilitating migration

The mechanisms established by Governments to organize, facilitate and regulate the migration of (temporary) workers, including bilateral memorandums of understanding and regional and international agreements, constitute another factor creating opportunities to migrate. These mechanisms

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14 Karen E. McNamara, "Cross-border migration with dignity in Kiribati", *Forced Migration Review*, No. 49 (May 2015), p. 62.

shape the size, direction and composition of migrant flows by determining the criteria as to who can migrate and under what conditions.

For example, migration in North and Central Asia is facilitated by visa-free travel regimes between the Russian Federation and most other countries of the subregion, numerous transport links and a common Russian language ability. Following their accession to the Eurasian Economic Union, citizens of Armenia, Kazakhstan and Kyrgyzstan are, furthermore, not required to have a work permit to be employed in the Russian Federation. Citizens of countries not requiring a travel visa may apply directly to the Federal Migration Service of the Russian Federation for a "patent" allowing them to work for individuals or legal entities. In 2014, the Federal Migration Service of the Russian Federation issued 2.4 million such patents. It is estimated that about 30 per cent of recipients are women.[15]

Elsewhere in the Asia-Pacific region, private recruitment agencies play an important role in facilitating and directing migration flows. These agencies earn money from fees charged to employers and migrants, although the latter is prohibited under ILO Private Employment Agencies Convention, 1997 (No. 181). Recruitment has become a multibillion-dollar industry in the region. Thus, recruitment agents are driven by financial incentives to convince workers to migrate abroad and have become very proactive in this regard, promoting a culture of migration. Migrants, in turn, often would not be able to migrate without the facilitation by private recruitment agents, who assist them in handling the often-complex administrative procedures required for migration. They may also provide other services which further facilitate the migration process, legally or otherwise, such as lending the money required to pay upfront fees or helping migrants to travel, and providing advice about directions of migration.

Social networks also play an important role in shaping migration flows, linking locations of origin and destination. Early migrants can encourage their acquaintances at their places of origin to migrate, and provide them with information and assistance to do so, directing them towards specific countries and places of destination. This is referred to as chain migration, and lowers the costs and risks of international migration, while increasing the expected returns. Chain migration can lead eventually to large scale

migration and to the establishment of transnational communities with strong ties to both the country of origin and the country of destination.

Information sent from the destination to the area of origin may encourage other migrants in chain migration. Information may be sent by previous migrants or by recruitment agents and brokers at the destination who encourage the friends and relatives of current migrants to come to the same destination. Thus, recruitment agents and social networks at the destination may also overlap. As shown in North and Central Asia, the ability to speak a common language between the country of origin and country of destination can also promote social networks and international migration.

In many cases, porous borders can facilitate migration and determine the way in which people migrate. Migrants from Myanmar, for example, were previously able to migrate relatively easily to Thailand through porous borders. Although there were regular ways to migrate to Thailand through a memorandum of understanding between the countries, many migrants were not aware of this possibility or considered it too costly. As such, it was perceived as being easier for migrants to migrate through irregular channels and obtain a work permit ex post through regularization campaigns.[16] The law has changed in recent years, which may also have an impact on the numbers of migrants coming to Thailand.

Pathways of migration

Migration, as noted, is primarily driven by economic factors. Nevertheless, a number of intervening factors mean that migrants typically do not move to the countries with the highest wages. They rather choose places in relative proximity, where networks already exist and where there are realistic ways to enter the countries, whether facilitated by policies, private recruitment agencies, porous borders, or, in some cases even by migrant smugglers. Thus migration takes different pathways in different contexts. These main pathways are outlined below.

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15   Sergey V. Ryazantsev, "The role of labour migration in the development of the economy of the Russian Federation", Facilitating Migration Management in North and Central Asia, Working Paper No. 1 (Bangkok, ESCAP, 2016). Available from www.unescap.org/sites/default/files/1%20Role%20of%20Labour%20Eng%20report%20v3-2-E.pdf.
16   Jerrold W. Huguet, ed., *Thailand Migration Report 2014* (Bangkok, United Nations Thematic Working Group on Migration in Thailand, 2014).

MIGRATION FOR PERMANENT SETTLEMENT

Three countries in the region have policies to accept significant numbers of migrants for permanent settlement: Australia, New Zealand and Singapore. Brief descriptions of those policies follow.

Australia

Australia implements three main programmes to allow the permanent settlement of migrants: the migration programme, the humanitarian programme and the business innovation and investment programme. In addition, the Trans-Tasman Travel Arrangement allows New Zealand citizens to live and work in Australia.

The migration programme admitted 189,770 migrants for permanent settlement in Australia during the fiscal year 2015/16. Among those, more than two thirds, or 128,550, were admitted through the "skill stream" for skilled migrants; 57,400 came through the "family stream" for non-Australian family members of citizens and permanent residents; and 308 entered under "special eligibility". In 2015/16, the greatest number of immigration visas were given to persons from India (40,145), China (29,008) and the United Kingdom (18,951).[17] The largest number of new migrants comes from New Zealand, however. In 2012/13, 52,012 people entered Australia under the Trans-Tasman Travel Arrangement for free movement.[18]

The business innovation and investment programme was introduced in July 2012 and provides for a significant-investor visa for persons willing to invest at least 5 million Australian dollars in the country. On the other hand, the humanitarian programme issued 17,555 visas in 2015/16, with almost half being issued to persons from Iraq and the Syrian Arab Republic.[19]

New Zealand

Through the *Immigration Amendment Act* of 1991, a medium-term human capital model of skilled migration was adopted and a points system for admission established. Points are awarded for, inter alia, educational qualifications, employment experience, English language ability and age.

New Zealand currently employs a three-year target for admissions. The target for the period from 2011/12 to 2013/14 was between 135,000 and 150,000 admissions of skilled migrants. Because points are awarded for current employment or a job offer, with bonus points for having studied in New Zealand, most applicants are already residing in the country, having entered as students or temporary workers.[20] New Zealand also issues smaller numbers of long-term business visas and entrepreneur and investor visas.

Singapore

Highly skilled migrants in Singapore fall into four tiers of workers with employment passes. After those with employment passes have worked in Singapore for two years, they may apply to become permanent residents. Those who have been permanent residents for two to six years and meet other requirements may apply for citizenship (table 1). Since 2007, employment pass holders who have worked in Singapore for two to five years and earn an annual salary of at least SGD27,000 benefit from the Personalized Employment Pass. Overseas professionals who want to migrate to Singapore may also apply for the new pass if their most recent monthly salary was at least SGD6,100.

TABLE 1. POPULATION OF SINGAPORE BY RESIDENCE STATUS, 2016

RESIDENCE STATUS	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
Citizens	3 408 900	60.8
Permanent residents	524 600	9.4
NON-RESIDENTS		
Employment pass holders (professionals, managers and executives)	184 107	3.3
S pass holders (health care, social services, technicians)	184 201	3.3
Work permit holders (construction, manufacturing, marine)	736 428	13.1
Foreign domestic workers	234 318	4.2
International students	66 946	1.2
Dependents of citizens/ Permanent residents/work pass holders	267 792	4.8
Total	**5 607 292**	**100.0**

Source: The Singapore Department of Statistics (2016).

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17 Australia, Department of Immigration and Border Protection, *2015-16 Migration Programme Report* (Canberra, 2016). Available from www.border.gov.au/ReportsandPublications/Documents/statistics/2015-16-migration-programme-report.pdf.
18 Australia, Department of Immigration and Border Protection, "Fact sheet – New Zealanders in Australia". Available from www.border.gov.au/about/corporate/information/fact-sheets/17nz (accessed 30 August 2017).
19 Australia, Department of Immigration and Border Protection, "Fact sheet – Australia's refugee and humanitarian programme". Available from www.border.gov.au/about/corporate/information/fact-sheets/60refugee#d (accessed 30 August 2017).
20 OECD, *Recruiting Immigrant Workers: New Zealand 2014* (Paris, OECD Publishing, 2014).

TABLE 2. MIGRANT WORKERS DEPLOYED FROM SELECTED COUNTRIES BY DESTINATION, LATEST YEAR AVAILABLE

COUNTRY (LATEST YEAR AVAILABLE)	TOTAL NUMBER OF MIGRANT WORKERS DEPLOYED	EAST AND SOUTH-EAST ASIA	PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL	WEST ASIA[a]	PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL	OTHER AREAS	PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL
Bangladesh (2008)	875 109	163 344	19	571 737	65	140 028	16
India (2012)	747 041	21 261	3	725 288	97	492	<0.5
Indonesia (2007)	696 746	350 255	50	335 935	48	10 556	2
Nepal (2009/10)	298 094	114 083	38	172 407	58	11 604	4
Pakistan (2009)	403 528	3 913	1	389 809	97	9 806	2
Philippines (2013)[b]	1 225 410	379 585	31	826 269	67	19 556	2
Sri Lanka (2012)	281 906	9 883	4	267 811	95	4 212	1
Thailand (2013)	130 511	80 314	62	25 715	20	24 482	19
Viet Nam (2010)	85 546	53 781	63	10 888	13	20 877	24

Note a: West Asia includes countries of the GCC as well as Jordan, Lebanon and Libya.
Note b: Top 10 destinations only.
Sources: Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP), Labour Migration Outflow database (available from http://sitreport.unescapsdd.org/labour-migration-outflow; accessed 30 August 2017); and Philippine Overseas Employment Administration data (available from www.poea.gov.ph/ofwstat/compendium/2013.pdf; accessed 30 August 2017).

TEMPORARY LABOUR MIGRATION

The predominant flows of international migration in Asia and the Pacific are made up of single workers undertaking temporary labour migration, generally in low-skill or low-status jobs, facilitated and regulated by Governments but carried out by private recruitment and employment agencies. Labour migration involves both men and women, with a strong division of labour by gender. Several of the main sectors that employ migrant workers are heavily masculinized, such as construction. However, women make up a significant proportion of migrant workers, in particular in sectors such as services and health work. Women also make up the majority of workers in domestic work.

These temporary migration flows are the largest in the region. More than 1.8 million departures from the Philippines to work abroad were counted annually in 2012, 2013 and 2014. In a typical year, more than half a million people leave Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, Nepal and Pakistan each to work abroad, while Sri Lanka, Thailand and Viet Nam each deploy well over 100,000 migrant workers per year.[21]

The main countries of origin vary greatly in terms of the proportion of women among migrant workers. This is influenced by some major countries of origin in Asia placing restrictions on the migration of women, limiting their presence among official flows.

Demand for workers in the Middle East drives much of the migration from South-East Asia and from South and South-West Asia. More than 95 per cent of migrant workers from India, Pakistan and Sri Lanka are found in West Asia (table 2), along with about two thirds of migrant workers from Bangladesh and the Philippines. Deployments to South and South-West Asia constitute 58 per cent of the total from Nepal and 48 per cent of that from Indonesia. Economic trends also affect demand for migrant workers. The number of migrants leaving Bangladesh, India, Indonesia and Pakistan fell in 2009 and 2010, reflecting the economic slowdown in the oil-producing countries of GCC.

The skill composition of major countries of origin of migrant workers varies. Some countries, such as Bangladesh, India and the Philippines, have notable proportions of skilled workers among their migrants abroad. Some 12 per cent of newly hired, land-based workers from the Philippines in 2013 were professional, technical or related workers, and another 54 per cent were clerical, sales and service workers (table 3). In Bangladesh, one third of the workers from the country in 2016 were considered to be skilled workers (table 4).

Gender differentials are evident in the skill levels of male and female migrants. For example, among male migrants from Sri Lanka, 58 per cent are considered skilled, clerical or middle-level workers; yet, 86 per cent of Sri Lankan female migrants are domestic

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21 Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP), *Asia-Pacific Migration Report 2015: Migrants' Contributions to Development* (ST/ ESCAP/2738).

TABLE 3. NEWLY HIRED, LAND-BASED MIGRANT WORKERS FROM THE PHILIPPINES, BY MAJOR OCCUPATIONAL GROUP, 2013

OCCUPATIONAL GROUP	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
Total	**464 888**	**100**
Professional, technical and related workers	53 840	12
Administrative and managerial workers	1 947	<0.5
Clerical workers	12 893	3
Sales workers	9 220	2
Service workers	230 030	49
Agricultural workers	2 233	<0.5
Production workers	147 776	32
Others	6 949	1

Source: Philippine Overseas Employment Administration data.

TABLE 4. BANGLADESH, NUMBER OF MIGRANT WORKERS DEPLOYED, BY SKILL LEVEL, 2016

SKILL LEVEL	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE
Total	**747 141**	**100**
Professional	4 638	1
Skilled	318 851	43
Semi-skilled	119 946	16
Unskilled	303 706	41

Source: Bangladesh Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training, Category-wise Overseas Employment from 1976 to 2016, available from http://www.bmet.org.bd/BMET/viewStatReport.action?reportnumber=35. Accessed 7 September 2017

TABLE 5. SRI LANKA, NUMBER OF MIGRANT WORKERS DEPLOYED, BY SKILL LEVEL AND SEX, 2015

	MALES		FEMALES	
SKILL LEVEL	NUMBER	%	NUMBER	%
Total	**172 630**	**100**	**90 677**	**100**
Professional	5 833	3	424	<0.5
Middle-level	6 245	4	676	1
Clerical	11 025	6	1 447	2
Skilled	77 449	45	4 649	5
Semi-skilled	4 384	3	453	1
Unskilled	67 694	39	9 750	11
Domestic worker	..	..	73 278	81

Source: Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment, *Annual Statistical Report of Foreign Employment 2015*, available from http://www.slbfe.lk/page.php?LID=1&MID=213. Accessed 7 September 2017

workers, while another 7 per cent are considered unskilled (table 5). By contrast, nurses constitute the largest professional occupation among migrants from the Philippines, most of whom are female.[22]

The countries of North and Central Asia constitute a particular labour migration system. The Russian Federation, as the most economically advanced country in the subregion and with a declining working-age population, attracts large numbers of migrants from other countries where wages are lower. Kazakhstan is an increasingly important destination for migrant workers in the subregion, owing to a growing economy bolstered by petroleum and natural gas reserves.

SEASONAL EMPLOYMENT PROGRAMMES

Australia and New Zealand implement seasonal migrant worker programmes. They were formed with an explicit intention of promoting development in the areas of origin and have been studied to assess their development impact.

New Zealand launched the Recognized Seasonal Employer programme in 2007 to fill labour shortages in the horticulture and viticulture industries. Given the special nature of the Pacific — including isolation, high transport costs and small population size, which limit local options for development — as well as the need to build resilience to adapt to climate change, priority is given to migrants from the Pacific Island countries. Workers from Kiribati, Nauru, Samoa, Solomon Islands, Tonga, Tuvalu and Vanuatu have participated on the programme, while some workers have also been taken from Indonesia, Malaysia and Thailand, based on existing contacts.

In the countries of origin, ministries of labour, and district and community leaders are involved in the selection of potential migrants, although in Vanuatu and Solomon Islands private recruitment agencies select migrants. Migrants are usually restricted to a specific location, type of work and employer, and must return home at the end of the contract. Employers must pay half of the travel costs, pay market wages, guarantee payment for at least 240 hours of work, ensure that hours of work are at least 30 per week and provide health care and accommodation.

22   International Organization for Migration (IOM) and Scalabrini Migration Centre, *Country Migration Report: The Philippines 2013* (Makati City and Quezon City, 2013).

The programme began with an initial annual cap of 5,000 workers, but this was raised to 9,000 by 2015. During the first six years of the programme, 39,079 visas were issued, with 78.7 per cent of those going to migrants from the Pacific.[23]

A similar programme is the Pacific Seasonal Worker Pilot Scheme launched by Australia in August 2008. It allows Australian employers in the horticulture industry to employ workers from eight Pacific island countries and Timor-Leste. As for the New Zealand programme, the scheme is intended to benefit employers, the migrant workers themselves and the countries of origin. The scheme has subsequently been replaced by the broader Seasonal Workers' Programme.

HIGH-SKILLED MIGRATION

The migratory paths of highly skilled migrants are distinct from low-skilled migrants in terms of destinations, processes, and living and working conditions. Highly-skilled migrants are typically defined as those with tertiary education, particularly in professions that are in high demand in the destination country.

The number of highly skilled migrants is substantial in some migration flows. In 2010–2011, there were 25 million migrants from Asia in the countries of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). Among those migrants, 44.7 per cent were educated to tertiary level. Two million highly educated migrants moved from Asia to OECD countries during the five years prior to 2010-2011, more than from any other region of the world. Migrants from China and India comprise the largest shares of highly educated Asian migrants in OECD countries.[24]

In several destination countries, the rights of migrant workers are linked to their skills. For example, in Singapore, highly skilled migrants can become permanent residents, while lower skilled workers can only enter Singapore as "temporary workers", although the period of their "temporary work" can be prolonged. In countries of the GCC, highly skilled workers can bring along their families, while family reunification is not allowed for low-skilled workers.

Some countries in the Asia-Pacific region make specific efforts to attract highly skilled migrants, such as Japan, which provides special conditions for highly-skilled migrants compared to those with lower skills.[25]

While Governments usually play a much smaller part in the migration of professional and highly skilled workers than in that of low-skilled workers, several Governments in countries of origin take steps to promote more skilled migration. For example, the Overseas Employment Corporation in Pakistan promotes the overseas employment of professionals and highly skilled workers. The Overseas Indian Affairs Division of the Ministry of External Affairs of India conducts skills assessments of the labour markets in several European countries in order to identify areas in which India has a competitive advantage. Viet Nam also encourages the migration of skilled workers, sending engineers and skilled construction workers to Japan, the Middle East and the Republic of Korea.[26]

Because of the contribution that highly skilled migrants can make to economies, many countries, in particular high-income countries, have developed policies to attract and retain such migrants. Governments of the region use student mobility programmes and points systems to select, attract and facilitate the settlement of highly skilled migrants.

Such professional migration is often characterized by two-way flows of migrants, with migrants maintaining frequent personal and professional contacts with their home countries, running seminars or engaging in collaborative research while abroad. This suggests that a diaspora of academics, scientists, researchers and other highly skilled migrants can have a brain-gain effect even if those professionals remain abroad.

Complexities of migration pathways

IRREGULAR MIGRATION

As noted above, informal drivers and facilitators of migration co-exist with legal programmes to facilitate and direct migration flows. Data on irregular migration are inherently limited. However, it is clear

23   John Gibson and David McKenzie, "Development through seasonal worker programs: the case of New Zealand's RSE program", Policy Research Working Paper, No. 6762 (Washington, D.C., World Bank, 2014). Available from https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/bitstream/handle/10986/18356/WPS6762.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y.
24   Asian Development Bank Institute, International Labour Organization (ILO) and OECD, *Building Human Capital through Labor Migration in Asia* (Tokyo, Bangkok and Paris, 2015), pp. 8-9.
25   See http://www.immi-moj.go.jp/newimmiact_3/en/
26   Asian Development Bank Institute, *Labor Migration, Skills and Student Mobility in Asia* (Tokyo, 2014).

that a considerable proportion of international migration within and from the Asia-Pacific region is irregular. Country-level data give an indication of the scale of this migration. For example, the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) reported that there are approximately 30,000 irregular migrants in the Maldives, constituting more than one third of all migrant workers there. Estimates of the number of irregular migrants in Malaysia range from 0.6 million to 1.9 million.[27] The number of irregular migrants in Thailand fluctuates because of periodic changes in policies and regularization programmes; in 2013, almost 900,000 migrants from Cambodia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic and Myanmar regularized their status.[28]

The number of Afghan citizens in the Islamic Republic of Iran and Pakistan is likely to be significantly higher than the number of those who are officially registered with either the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) or Governments, as some refugees do not seek registration.[29]

According to estimations in 2012, there were 3 million to 4 million migrants working without authorization in the Russian Federation, increasing to 5 million to 7 million during spring and summer due to more seasonal migrants.[30] This number is likely to have been reduced because of easier access to regular migration channels in the Russian Federation in recent years. In Kazakhstan, large numbers of labour migrants are working in an irregular status.[31]

The Commission on Filipinos Overseas estimated that of the almost 10.5 million Filipinos who were overseas in December 2012, over 1.3 million were in an irregular situation.[32] There are approximately 150,000 irregular migrants from Viet Nam in Europe, including 50,000 in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, and some 10,000 in the Republic of Korea.[33]

Women often face more restrictions on their migration than men, frequently resulting in them using irregular migration channels. For example, some countries of origin in the region impose restrictions on female migration, such as setting minimum ages for female migrants, to protect them from abuse. Nevertheless, this often results in irregular migration,

as women still wish to access the opportunities afforded by migration, as noted in the discussion on women migrants below. Meanwhile, the gendered segmentation of work in countries of destination often downplays the importance of women's work, meaning that many so-called "feminine" roles, such as domestic work, are not considered part of formal sectors of the labour market, and thus reducing opportunities for women to use legal channels to migrate.

MIXED FLOWS

As previously noted, in several cases across the region, large numbers of migrants cross borders in an irregular fashion, often aided by smugglers. Within these flows, there may well be different categories of migrants, including victims of human trafficking, asylum seekers, refugees, unaccompanied migrant children and labour migrants. For that reason, those movements are referred to as mixed migration. Status identification of regular migrants, smuggled migrants, victims of trafficking and refugees is challenging in these circumstances, and may have serious consequences.

Examples in the region include the situation in the Indian Ocean in May and June 2015, when approximately 5,000 persons from Myanmar and Bangladesh were stranded on boats, having been abandoned by smugglers. Several countries refused disembarkation, and at least 70 migrants died.[34]

The most prominent example of mixed migration is the migration situation in the Mediterranean Sea, which peaked in 2015 and is still ongoing. The status of these people is unclear throughout their journey and in different countries. While many of them originate from the Syrian Arab Republic and Iraq, and have a higher likelihood of being granted refugee status in the European Union, there are also many migrants originating from the Asia-Pacific region, including Afghanistan, Bangladesh and Pakistan. While many of them intend to apply for asylum in the European Union, their status is unclear throughout the journey through Turkey, and large proportions of them are smuggled and even trafficked.

27 UNODC, *Migrant Smuggling in Asia: A Thematic Review of Literature* (Bangkok, 2012). Available from www.unodc.org/unodc/en/publications-by-date.html.
28 Jerrold W. Huguet, ed., *Thailand Migration Report 2014* (Bangkok, United Nations Thematic Working Group on Migration in Thailand, 2014).
29 Saher Baloch, "Not every Afghan living in Pakistan is a refugee, says UNHCR", *Dawn*, 30 December 2014. Available from www.dawn.com/news/1153911.
30 Vladimir Iontsev and Irina Ivakhnyuk, "Role of international labour migration in Russian economic development", *CARIM-East Research Report 2012/04*, (Fiesole, European University Institute, 2012), p. 23. Available from www.migrationpolicycentre.eu/publications.
31 Kazakhstan, Human Rights Commission under the President of the Republic of Kazakhstan, *Special Report: Migrants' Rights in the Republic of Kazakhstan* (Astana, 2013). Available from www.iom.kz/en/publications.
32 Philippines, Commission on Filipinos Overseas, "Stock estimate of overseas Filipinos: as of December 2012" (Manila, 2012). Available from www.cfo.gov.ph/images/statistics/stock_estimate/StockEstimate2012.pdf.
33 UNODC, *Migrant Smuggling in Asia: A Thematic Review of Literature* (Bangkok, 2012). Available from www.unodc.org/unodc/en/publications-by-date.html.
34 See https://unhcr.atavist.com/mmm2015.

The level of mixed migration along the route through Turkey has put immense pressure on the countries concerned. There was a marked increase in 2015 in the number of nationals from refugee-producing countries detected entering Europe irregularly through Turkey, from 43,500 in 2014,[35] to almost 900,000 in 2015.[36] Nationals of Afghanistan, Iraq and the Syrian Arab Republic dominated this influx. Although the number of people transiting Turkey decreased in 2016, it remained high, at around 170,000.[37]

Apart from the volume, the mixed composition and unclear status of persons in mixed migration flows adds complexity. Often, migration flows include large numbers of families with children, unaccompanied and separated children, single women or pregnant women, older persons, and sick and injured migrants. These vulnerable groups, especially in mobile populations, often remain invisible during crises and cannot access assistance. Vulnerability persists throughout the migration process, from the origin, to transit (which can last significant periods of time), to the final destination. These prolonged processes delay solutions and create further challenges for migrants in limbo related to income and access to necessary services. Cooperation to address the situation of these people has resulted in the opening of resettlements for refugees in Turkey in exchange for the return of migrants in an irregular situation whose asylum claims have not been upheld in Greece.

Such migrants often fall into a protection gap, with overwhelmed countries of destination unable to provide sufficient services and protection to vulnerable migrants. This is largely due to lack of capacity, and legal frameworks which do not adequately recognize refugees and victims of trafficking, resulting in vulnerable migrants finding themselves in situations of hardship and even returning to countries where they face well-founded fears of being persecuted.

Even in countries which have ratified relevant international conventions and transposed these conventions into national law, there is a growing recognition of the need to make greater efforts to protect all vulnerable migrants, including those who do not fall into these categories. Many of the migrants vulnerable to violence, exploitation and abuse fall outside of the existing definitions of refugees and trafficked persons. In effect, there is a lack of clarity on what is meant by the term "vulnerable migrant" and what protection and assistance might be afforded to such migrants. As a result, a gap remains between protection afforded to recognized categories of migrants and those who are experiencing violence, exploitation, abuse and/or rights violations, but are not within protected classes.

More comprehensive understandings of vulnerability are emerging; these complement the traditional focus on protected categories of migrants and migrant membership in a particular group. These new understandings focus on the factors that have contributed to the individual migrant's or group of migrants' vulnerability, and the resources and capacities they themselves can mobilize to resist or recover from such vulnerability. Such circumstances would apply at any stage of the migration process and in any context. In line with this, one suggested definition encompasses "vulnerability to violence, exploitation, abuse and rights violation during the migratory process (at departure, in transit and on arrival), not necessarily as a predetermined condition" but rather arising from the interplay of factors. These factors could include individual capacities, wider social, economic, political context of countries of origin or transit, external factors that disrupt the migrants' lives and the environment in which migrants are found. Such a broader understanding could help in structuring appropriate responses.[38]

The International Organization for Migration (IOM) offers assisted voluntary return and reintegration programmes to aid migrants — many of whom are in an irregular situation, including victims of trafficking — to return home and reintegrate in a humane and dignified manner. In 2012, IOM assisted 92,905 such migrants to return to countries including Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Russian Federation and Sri Lanka.[39]

SMUGGLING OF MIGRANTS

The smuggling of migrants is a subset of irregular migration. Many migrants who wish to migrate irregularly rely on the assistance of others, who may include friends or relatives, small-scale brokers or groups associated with transnational organized crime.

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35   UNHCR, *The sea route to Europe: The Mediterranean passage in the age of refugees* (Geneva, 2015). Available from www.unhcr.org/5592bd059.html.

36   UNHCR, *Dead and Missing at Sea* (Geneva, 2016). Available from http://data2.unhcr.org/en/documents/download/56288.

37   Ibid.

38   Vincent Houver, Deputy Director Department of Operations and Emergencies of International Organization for Migration, "Setting the scene", statement to International Dialogue on Migration 2017: Understanding migrant vulnerabilities: a solution-based approach towards a global compact that reduces vulnerabilities and empowers migrants, Geneva, 18 July 2017. Available from www.iom.int/sites/default/files/our_work/ICP/IDM/2017_IDM/setting%20the%20 scene%20IDMDOE%20-%20final.pdf.

39   IOM, *Counter Trafficking and Assistance to Vulnerable Migrants: Annual Report of Activities 2011* (Geneva, 2012), p. 10.

UNODC has attempted to estimate the number of persons smuggled through key streams in East and South-East Asia and the total amount of money earned from such smuggling. It estimates that just over half a million migrants are smuggled into Thailand each year, mostly from Cambodia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic and Myanmar, generating US$192 million annually for smugglers.[40] Malaysia is also a popular destination for migrants smuggled from Indonesia and from countries in the Mekong River subregion.[41]

Approximately 12,000 irregular migrants from China are smuggled into the United States of America annually, paying an average of US$50,000 each and generating up to US$600 million for the smugglers. UNODC also estimates that approximately 36,000 Chinese migrants are smuggled into the European Union annually, paying an average of US$17,000 each and generating over US$600 million in smuggling fees. Migrants are further smuggled from the Democratic People's Republic of Korea to China and the Republic of Korea. Japan; the Republic of Korea; and Hong Kong, China, are the main destinations for migrants smuggled within East Asia.

Smuggling networks from Viet Nam are also active, smuggling approximately 18,000 persons a year to Europe, but fewer than 1,000 a year to the United States. If it is assumed that Vietnamese migrants pay the same level of fees as those from China along these routes, they generate approximately US$300 million for smugglers taking them to Europe and perhaps US$50 million for smugglers taking them to the United States.[42]

Within South and South-West Asia, Afghanistan is a major source country for smuggled migrants. Most irregular migrants go to the Islamic Republic of Iran and Pakistan, but some also move to the countries of the GCC and Europe, as well as Australia, China and India. Many irregular migrants from Pakistan move to the countries of the GCC and Europe, and, until recently, Australia, with most of those in the latter streams aided by smugglers. Irregular migration from Bangladesh, India and Sri Lanka, mostly facilitated by smugglers, to Europe, Gulf States, Northern America,

the Pacific and South-East Asia is also significant. Within South and South-West Asia, most irregular migration is to India.[43]

Given the history of open borders in North and Central Asia, smuggling of migrants to the Russian Federation and Kazakhstan from countries of the subregion is limited. However, the subregion serves as a transit point for the smuggling of migrants from South and South-West Asia, and South-East Asia to Europe.[44]

TRAFFICKING IN PERSONS

Trafficking is distinct from smuggling of migrants as it involves the exploitation of migrants. The *Global Report on Trafficking in Persons* reported that trafficking trends varied widely across the region, with most victims from South Asia having been trafficked for forced labour, whereas victims from East Asia and the Pacific having been primarily trafficked for sexual exploitation.[45] It is further estimated that approximately 1.6 million people in North and Central Asia are trafficked for forced labour every year. Three quarters of those are women, and most are trafficked for sexual exploitation.[46]

Victims of trafficking are forced to work in a number of sectors. In a study of women and men who were receiving post-trafficking assistance services in Cambodia, Thailand and Viet Nam, respondents reported having been trafficked into 15 different labour sectors. The three main forms of forced work, accounting for two thirds (67.2 per cent) of respondents, were sex work (29.9 per cent), fishing (25 per cent) and factory work (12.3 per cent); among respondents under the age of 18, over half had been trafficked for sexual exploitation. Respondents also highlighted the violence that accompanies trafficking, with nearly half of adult men (49.3 per cent) and most adult women (60 per cent) reporting sexual and/or physical violence at the destination. These findings highlight the fact that trafficking represents a violation of the human rights of migrants.[47]

IOM reported that it assisted a total of 6,290 victims of trafficking in 2014, 3,000 of whom were women and more than 1,000 of whom were children. Most victims

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40 UNODC, *Transnational Organized Crime in East Asia and the Pacific: A Threat Assessment* (Bangkok, 2013). Available from www.unodc.org/unodc/en/publications.html.
41 UNODC, *Migrant Smuggling in Asia: Current Trends and Related Challenges* (Bangkok, 2015). Available from www.unodc.org/unodc/en/publications.html.
42 UNODC, *Transnational Organized Crime in East Asia and the Pacific: A Threat Assessment* (Bangkok, 2013). Available from www.unodc.org/unodc/en/publications.html.
43 UNODC, *Migrant Smuggling in Asia: Current Trends and Related Challenges* (Bangkok, 2015). Available from www.unodc.org/unodc/en/publications.html.
44 IOM, *Baseline Research on Smuggling of Migrants in, from and through Central Asia* (Vienna, 2006).
45 *Global Report on Trafficking in Persons 2016* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.16.IV.6).
46 Sergey Ryazantsev, *Trafficking in Human Beings for Labour Exploitation and Irregular Labour Migration in the Russian Federation: Forms, Trends and Countermeasures* (Moscow, The Council of the Baltic Sea States, 2014).
47 Cathy Zimmerman and others, *Health and Human Trafficking in the Greater Mekong Subregion: Findings from a Survey of Men, Women and Children in Cambodia, Thailand and Viet Nam* (Geneva, IOM; London, London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, 2014).

of trafficking were exploited for labour (70 per cent), while 17 per cent were victims of sexual exploitation. Since 1997, IOM has assisted over 75,000 victims of trafficking.[48]

These broad global statistics highlight the fact that only a small fraction of the number of persons estimated to be victims of trafficking are officially identified as such.

Other migration pathways

MARRIAGE MIGRATION

The incidence of international marriage in Asia is significant, especially in East Asia and South-East Asia. Other areas of marriage migration include India and Nepal, which maintain an open border between their countries, and marriage across the border is common. In the 2001 Nepal population census, 66 per cent of the female foreign-born population reported that they had migrated for marriage, whereas no foreign-born men reported such a motivation for migration.[49]

The recent increases in the pattern of international marriage between wives from South-East Asia and husbands from East Asia can be attributed to the larger number of males than females of marriageable age in some South-East Asian countries. This is coupled with the increased education, urbanization and employment of women in East Asian countries,

which make them less likely to want to marry men residing in rural areas.

Marriage migration can bring major challenges for spouses, especially women. Acculturation and adaptation can be difficult for foreign wives in the country of destination, particularly for spouses who do not share a common language and who did not know each other before marriage. Power imbalances between husbands and wives may be encoded in laws and commercialized processes around marriage migration, disempowering women and leaving them vulnerable to domestic violence. Where there are several foreign born wives in an area, however, they tend to form social networks that allow them to assist each other and to create transnational communities. Some husbands and wives set up businesses involving trade between their two countries.

INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS

International migration to study abroad from and within the Asia-Pacific region is increasing. With the knowledge that international students gain abroad, they have the potential to make much greater contributions in the future to their own country and/or the one in which they have studied. The number of tertiary students from Asia and the Pacific studying abroad almost tripled from 0.7 million in 2000 to over 2.0 million in 2016, largely resulting from a sharp increase of Chinese studying abroad (figure 9).

FIGURE 9. OUTBOUND INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS FROM SELECTED ASIA-PACIFIC COUNTRIES, 2000–2016
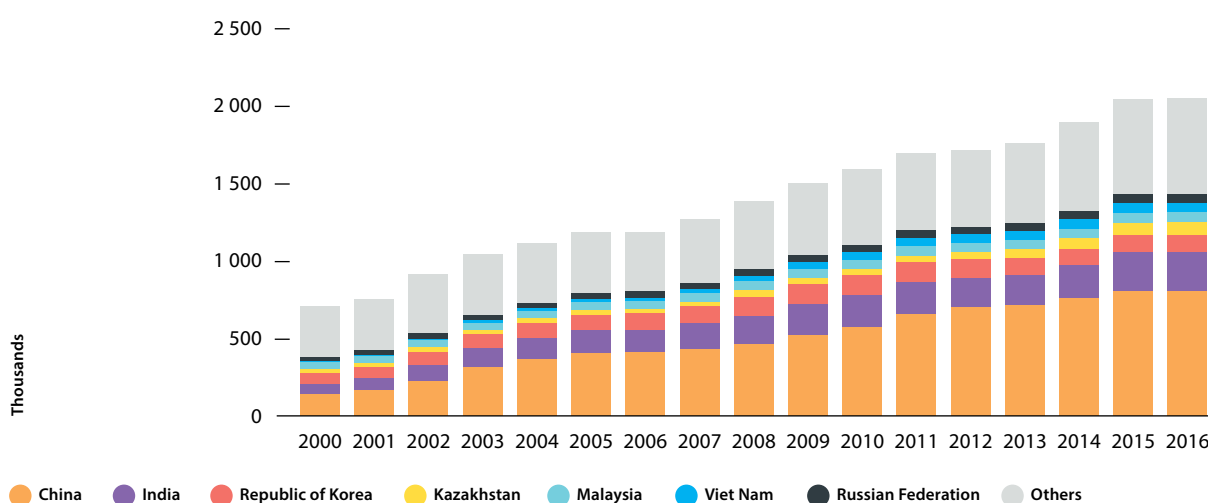
Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2017.

48 IOM, "Report of the Director General on the work of the Organization for the year 2014", document C/106/3. Available from https://governingbodies.iom.int/system/files/en/council/106/C106-3-DGReportfor2014.pdf.

49 Bal Kumar, "Nepal", *Asian and Pacific Migration Journal*, vol. 17, No. 3-4 (September 2008), pp. 287-309. Available from http://journals.sagepub.com/toc/amja/17/3-4.

FIGURE 10. INBOUND INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS FROM SELECTED ASIA-PACIFIC COUNTRIES STUDYING IN AUSTRALIA, 2015

Others, 37%

Pakistan, 3%
Indonesia, 3%
Nepal, 3%
Malaysia, 4%
Thailand, 4%
Republic of Korea, 4%
Viet Nam, 5%

India, 11%

China, 26%
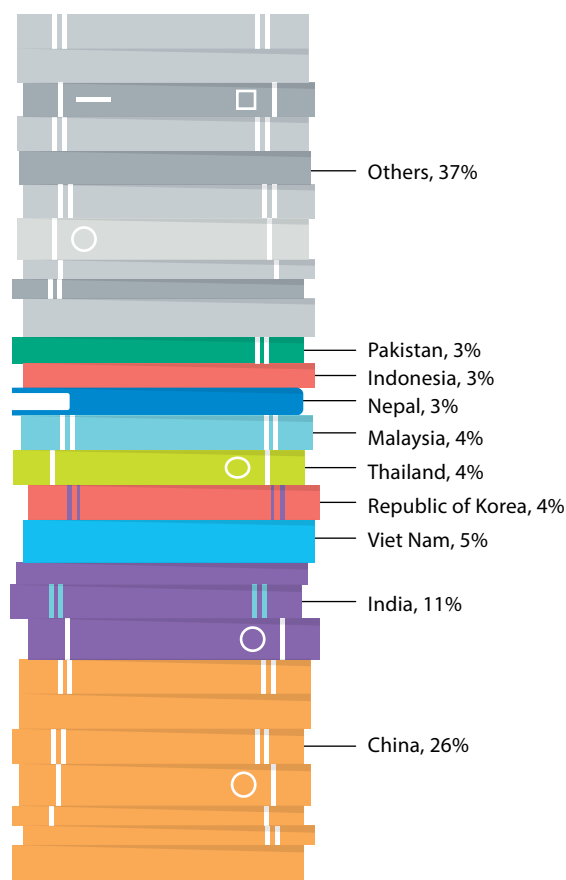
Source: Australian Government's Department of Education (2017).

While there were more than 800,000 international students from China in 2016, 255,000 from India and 108,000 from the Republic of Korea, the highest outbound mobility ratios have occurred in smaller countries. More than 30 per cent of tertiary students from Brunei Darussalam were studying abroad in 2015, and almost 20 per cent of students from Azerbaijan.

Countries in the region also host large numbers of international students. The number of international tertiary students studying in the region almost quadrupled from nearly 0.27 million in 2000 to more than 1 million in 2015 (figure 9). Australia and the Russian Federation together host more than half a million of these students, while China hosts more than 120,000. International students comprise 19.2 per cent of the tertiary students in Singapore, 18.3 per cent of those in Australia and 21.1 per cent

of those in New Zealand, according to the latest figures.[50] International students may also come at lower levels of education. For example, the majority of international students in New Zealand attend private training establishments, most of which are English language schools.[51]

Most of these students stay within the Asia-Pacific region. The top ten countries or areas of origin of international tertiary students in Australia were from Asia, alone accounting for more than 10 per cent of the total number of internationally mobile students from the region (figure 10). Furthermore, 85,000 of the more than 800,000 internationally mobile students from China are found in Japan, while the Russian Federation hosts approximately 150,000 students from Asian countries.[52]

These international tertiary students in the region are not only a symbol of rapid advances in understanding between countries, but a portent for strengthened future cooperation between them. Because of the languages learned and the contacts established, international students are likely to promote long-term cooperation between countries.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Migration in the Asia-Pacific region is an outcome of a complex interplay of drivers and facilitators, which result in different forms and directions of movement. Given the dominance of temporary labour migration in the flows of international migration in Asia and the Pacific, it is appropriate that government policies and the interests of researchers have focused on that form of migration. However, outside these regular flows, large streams of labour migrants are often commingled with migrants who are smuggled or are victims of trafficking, or with refugees and asylum seekers. Other flows of migration are for permanent settlement, seasonal employment, marriage and study. This shows that international migration in the region is marked by complexity, requiring comprehensive policy responses to ensure that it is safe, orderly and regular. Each of these different forms furthermore leads to different impacts, for countries of origin, destination and transit.

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50   United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), Global Flow of Tertiary-level Students database, UNESCO Institute of Statistics. Available from http://uis.unesco.org/en/uis-student-flow (accessed 1 August 2017).

51   OECD, *Recruiting Immigrant Workers: New Zealand 2014* (Paris, OECD Publishing, 2014).

52   United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), Global Flow of Tertiary-level Students database, UNESCO Institute of Statistics. Available from http://uis.unesco.org/en/uis-student-flow (accessed 1 August 2017).

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CHAPTER III

Impacts of migration

Migration is primarily driven by a desire for a better life, either for migrants themselves or their families. Undertaken as a free choice, with sufficient support and protective measures, and through efficient and safe legal channels, migration can make positive impacts in countries of destination and origin alike, as well as for migrants themselves. When migrants are compelled to move, under unsafe and disorderly conditions, the negative consequences are significant for all stakeholders across a number of dimensions.

Well-managed migration, in which migrants are able to move in a safe, orderly and regular fashion, in full enjoyment of their human rights, can produce triple-win benefits — for countries of origin, destination, and migrants themselves. Simulations of a partial liberalization of migration flows covering just 5 per cent of the population of developing countries would produce gains for the world economy that would far outstrip the benefits of complete liberalization of trade or capital flows. Overall estimates of the efficiency gains resulting from liberalization of human mobility range between 50 to 150 per cent of global GDP.[53]

ECONOMIC IMPACTS IN COUNTRIES OF ORIGIN

The most direct economic impact of labour migration on countries of origin results from remittances sent by migrant workers. In 2017, the amount totalled almost US$276 billion for the region as a whole, with China, India, Pakistan and Philippines being the main recipients. In some smaller economies, remittances comprise a significant percentage of GDP. For example, remittances contributed more than one quarter of the 2015 GDP of Nepal, Tajikistan and Kyrgyzstan (table 6).

As remittances are sent directly to families, they have an immediate and substantial impact on spending for food, education, health care and housing. It is estimated that remittances to Kyrgyzstan reduced the number of people living in poverty by 6–7 percentage points between 2010 and 2013.[54] Furthermore, they tend to be counter-cyclical, often increasing during periods of crisis, when other financial flows dry up, reflecting the altruistic or obligatory nature of such flows; for example, remittances to Nepal surged

following the 2015 earthquake. Remittances also contribute towards current accounts and help smooth consumption.

Notwithstanding their benefits, remittances can have moral hazard effects, disincentivizing work in recipient households. When remittances are spent on imported goods, they can contribute to currency appreciation and negative trade balances. This can especially happen where remittances are particularly important as a share of GDP, through the so-called "Dutch Disease".

Costs of sending remittances vary across the region; in some cases, such as in the Pacific, they are high, limiting the benefits of this flow and reflecting factors such as lack of competition and risk aversion by financial institutions in the face of anti-money-laundering regulations. This particularly penalizes women migrants, who tend to send smaller amounts of money more regularly.

Remittances are also affected by exogeneous factors, such as economic and policy conditions in countries of destination. Remittances to countries of North and Central Asia have been affected by economic slowdowns and policy crackdowns in the Russian Federation, declining by almost 50 per cent between 2014 and 2016, from over US$32.0 billion to US$16.6 billion.[55]

Recognizing these potentials and limitations, a number of countries have programmes focusing on directing remittances which are not required for household consumption towards productive purposes, such as microfinance initiatives or diaspora bonds that can serve economic and social development goals.

While remittances may have the most direct impact on countries of origin, the large volume of overseas employment also affects the national labour market. Overseas employment accounts for more than one fifth of the growth in the labour force in Bangladesh and absorbs more than one half of new manufacturing jobs.[56] In contexts where countries have growing working-age populations, this can help to provide additional sources of employment and reduce joblessness. However, especially in countries with smaller populations, large numbers of migrants leaving a country for overseas employment can

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53 Michael A. Clemens, "Economics and emigration: Trillion-dollar bills on the sidewalk?", *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, vol. 25, No. 3 (Summer 2011), pp. 83-106

54 United Nations Development Programme and Eurasian Development Bank, *Labour Migration, Remittances, and Human Development in Central Asia* (New York, 2015). Available from http://www.eurasia.undp.org/content/dam/rbec/docs/CAM&RHDpaperFINAL.pdf?download.

55 World Bank staff calculation based on data from IMF Balance of Payments Statistics database and data releases from central banks, national statistical agencies, and World Bank country desks. Outflow data based on numbers reported by country authorities to IMF Balance of Payments.

56 Asian Development Bank and ILO, Overseas employment of Bangladeshi workers, ADB Briefs No. 63. Available from www.adb.org/sites/default/files/publication/190600/overseas-employment-ban-workers.pdf.

TABLE 6. TOP REMITTANCE RECIPIENTS AND TEN YEAR TRENDS, 2016

REMITTANCES RECEIVED, BILLION (UNITED STATES DOLLARS)			REMITTANCES AS PERCENTAGE OF GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT		
	2016	**10-YEAR TREND (2006–2016)**		**2016**	**10-YEAR TREND (2006–2016)**
India	62.7		Kyrgyzstan	30.5	
China	61.0		Nepal	29.7	
Philippines	29.8		Tajikistan	26.9	
Pakistan	19.8		Samoa	16.8	
Bangladesh	13.7		Marshall Islands	14.7	
Viet Nam	13.4		Armenia	13.1	
Indonesia	9.2		Tuvalu	10.6	
Sri Lanka	7.3		Georgia	10.4	
Republic of Korea	6.4		Philippines	10.2	
Nepal	6.3		Kiribati	9.8	

Source: ESCAP based on World Bank's calculations based on data from the International Monetary Fund Balance of Payments Statistics database and data released from central banks, national statistical agencies and World Bank country desks. Available from www.knomad.org/sites/default/files/2017-06/Updated%20 remittancedatainflows%28Apr.2017%29.xls (accessed 1 August 2017).

potentially cause labour market shortages of well-educated and skilled workers (the so-called "brain drain"), especially in key sectors such as health.

The return of migrant workers with new skills and savings to invest can make positive contributions to the economies of countries of origin, as has occurred in India and the Republic of Korea, for example. Returning migrants also bring social capital in the form of increased knowledge, experience and networks of contacts that benefit their home countries. Nevertheless, it is important to ensure that services are in place to assist the reintegration of returning migrants who may have qualifications and work experience that are not recognized, and may not have been able to benefit from social protection either in countries of origin or destination. This is especially critical for those who have been forcibly returned and unable to prepare for their that.

The "brain drain" can be mitigated by engagement of diasporas — settled communities of migrants living abroad, but retaining links with their countries of origin. Such diasporas can be engaged as development partners able to use income, skills and networks developed while abroad to the benefit of their countries of origin. Support of this nature can take the form of short-term return to provide

training and assist institutional reform, or can be through activities in their countries of residence including mobilizing support for countries of origin or providing intermediary services to promote trade and investment. These communities can also serve as partners in the integration of newly-arriving migrants, helping them to bridge information gaps.

The impacts of migration depend on the policy environment in countries of origin, which can either support migrant efforts, constrain them or lead to negative impacts. In response, countries such as Bangladesh and Kyrgyzstan have engaged in efforts to mainstream migration into their national development strategies (see box, *Mainstreaming international migration into development strategies* on page 40).

ECONOMIC IMPACTS IN COUNTRIES OF DESTINATION

Migrant workers affect the economies of host countries through increasing capital productivity. They do this through meeting unmet labour demand, promoting trade, providing contributions to GDP and public finances, and being involved in entrepreneurial activities. Migrant workers, especially the highly

MAINSTREAMING INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION INTO DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

The importance of policy coherence for improving the development impacts of international migration has been widely-recognized as a priority, given the broad range of areas over which migration can have impacts and the wide number of actors involved in migration policymaking and implementation. As a result, since 2010, a joint project has been underway to mainstream migration into the development strategies of pilot countries, including Bangladesh and Kyrgyzstan, in the Asia-Pacific region.

Carried out by the Governments of these countries, in cooperation with IOM, UNDP and United Nations country teams, and with the support of the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation, these pilot initiatives have strengthened Government capacities to address migration and development linkages in their development strategies through training activities, data-gathering and consolidation, and development of institutional structures such as inter-ministerial committees to promote coordinated work on international migration.

Source: http://www.mainstreamingmigration.org/sites/default/files/2017-06/bangladesh-brogramme-brochure.pdf

skilled, help facilitate foreign direct investment and international trade in goods and services. When migrants are concentrated in specific sectors of the economy, their sectoral impacts can be particularly significant. Migrant contributions accounted for between 3.1 to 6.2 per cent of GDP in Thailand in 2013, a boost of between US$12 billion to US$24 billion. At a sectoral level, data suggest that as much as 10 per cent of value-addition in the construction sector came from the work of migrants.[57]

Migrant workers may compete with local workers at the same skill level, which can put pressure on employment and wage levels, especially at the lowest end of salary scales. However, migrant workers primarily complement local workers who work in other occupations in the same sector, taking jobs that

local workers are unwilling to do. Thus, the presence of migrant workers in agriculture increases the wages and number of jobs for local workers employed in related areas, such as food processing, transport and sales, as in Malaysia and Thailand. Indeed, evidence from Malaysia suggests that hiring 1,000 migrants is associated with the creation of an additional 836 full-time jobs, and 169 part-time jobs for Malaysian workers due to issues such as reduced production costs and increased exports.[58] Migrant workers also contribute to the economy of the host country by spending much of their earnings there, starting businesses or opening trade connections, when they are in the position to do so.

Migrant workers affect public finances in host countries by the services they use and the taxes that they pay. Even when migrants do not earn enough to pay income taxes, they still contribute to public finances through value-added taxes that they and their employers pay on their consumption and production, and the payment of insurance premiums. As most labour migrants are relatively young, they generally do not spend large amounts on health care, although this can be affected by their living and working conditions.

Evidence suggests that large remittance outflows from countries of destination do not have major economic impacts on countries of destination, as they are generally dwarfed by the economic contributions made by migrants.[59] Any negative impacts could best be mitigated through measures to promote integration of migrant workers in their countries of destination, to give migrants incentives to invest and consume rather than remit.

HUMAN RIGHTS IMPACTS

For migrant workers to contribute most effectively to development in both countries of origin and destination, their human rights and successful integration in the community should be ensured. They should enjoy the protection of national labour standards at their place of work, including the right to equal pay for equal work, safe working conditions and access to workers' organizations and social protection. If basic rights are not ensured for migrant workers, labour standards will deteriorate, resulting in harm not only to migrants but also to the national labour force.

57   Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP), *Asia-Pacific Migration Report 2015: Migrants' Contributions to Development* (ST/ ESCAP/2738)

58   Del Carpio and others, in Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP), *Asia-Pacific Migration Report 2015: Migrants' Contributions to Development* (ST/ ESCAP/2738).

59   George Naufal and Ismail Genç (forthcoming), "Impact of remittance outflows on sending economies – the case of the Russian Federation".

In practice, the fundamental rights of migrants are not respected throughout the migration process. Recruitment, especially when conducted by private recruitment agencies, remains an area where significant abuses, such as high fees and fraudulent practices, are widespread. Such practices leave migrant workers heavily in debt, vulnerable to unscrupulous employers or in situations in which their wages and working conditions are significantly worse than had been promised before departure. This may result in forms of forced labour or trafficking and undermine Government and corporate efforts to promote socially responsible business practices.

While abroad, migrant workers are subject to practices such as seizure of their documents, underpayment of wages, overwork and unsafe working conditions. These practices are generally illegal in countries of destination; however, due to different factors such as limited labour inspection capacity in many countries, migrant workers are often unable to access complaint mechanisms and are further hindered by legal provisions in many countries which enable employers to have excessive control over employees. Such provisions include laws preventing migrants from changing jobs or leaving the country without their employer's permission.

This vulnerability is exacerbated when migrants work in occupations considered as informal; in sectors otherwise excluded from labour law, such as the domestic, agricultural and fishery sectors; or in small firms or remote workplaces. Women migrant workers are at particular risk of such abuses because of recruitment practices and the especially vulnerable occupations and working conditions in which they are employed, notably domestic work. Attempting to prevent exploitation through bans or restrictions on the migration of women for employment have proven counterproductive, often resulting in women migrating through irregular channels, as, for many, migration still represents an opportunity.[60]

SOCIAL IMPACTS

On their return to the countries of origin, the relative lack of portability of social protection benefits leaves migrants vulnerable to poverty and social exclusion. Such systems in both countries of origin and destination have historically been designed for national coverage and have not yet adapted to address the international context of migrants. Few systems allow migrants to preserve the actuarial value of accrued pension rights when moving from

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[60]   Rebecca Napier-Moore, *Protected or Put in Harm's Way - Bans and Restrictions on Women's Labour Migration in ASEAN Countries* (Bangkok, ILO and United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women, 2017).

one country to another. Thus, temporary labour migrants, who are rarely able to retire in countries of destination, often lack pensions in old age.[61]

Returning migrants may also be agents of social change, bringing with them ideas and expectations from countries of destination regarding issues such as gender roles, entrepreneurship and the role and function of public services. Nevertheless, the nature of these ideas varies according to the country of destination and the experiences of migrants; care should be taken to foster positive attitudes — such as with regards to democracy and gender equality — while addressing negative ones.

Families of migrants who are left behind also suffer negative impacts from migration. Although they may benefit materially, children of migrant workers are at risk of mental health conditions associated with separation from their primary caregivers,[62] while other household members, such as grandparents, may find themselves with additional care responsibilities that may be burdensome. When men migrate, women may find themselves acting as heads of households without social recognition, or be forced to live with in-laws, disempowering them and restricting their mobility. When women migrate, men may not take up the gendered care responsibilities. Separation between couples may in certain instances lead to divorce.[63] Services to ensure support for the families of migrants are therefore essential.

IMPACTS OF IRREGULAR MIGRATION

The large volume of irregular migration in Asia and the Pacific creates further challenges. In addition to irregular migration having important implications for State sovereignty, it is a major human rights concern, as irregular migrant workers are at higher risk of abuse and exploitation given their precarious situation in the country of destination. This has deleterious consequences both for migrants and for nationals of their countries of destination, facilitating a race to the bottom in terms of wages and conditions for all workers by creating a reserve army of exploitable labour which can be employed without reference to labour laws.

Governments have attempted to limit irregular migration through a combination of expanding regular migration channels and making them more efficient, providing amnesties or regularizing existing undocumented migrants, or strictly enforcing immigration and employment regulations.

International migration policies are sometimes formulated without adequate linkage to other development strategies. Those policies should be designed to contribute towards the achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals. In countries of origin and destination, labour force planning — including vocational training, skills development and other educational strategies — should consider international labour migration, both in terms of the impact of overseas employment of migrants and the reintegration of migrants upon their return.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Migration can bring highly favourable impacts not only for the migrants and their families and communities but also for their countries of origin and destination. Results of simulations estimating the liberalization of human mobility have found that this would be highly welfare enhancing for the world economy. However, all these favourable impacts are less likely to be felt, and indeed may be outweighed when migrants are compelled to move, or move under unsafe and disorderly conditions.

To ensure that migration has positive outcomes for all, it is important that migration policies link clearly with national strategies and programmes to promote sustainable development. The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development emphasizes safe, orderly and regular migration's role as both a driver of sustainable development, as well as an outcome of it, through its focus on the rights of migrant workers, the facilitation of "orderly safe, regular and responsible migration", and the combating of human trafficking. Meeting the targets of the 2030 Agenda will lead to positive outcomes for all affected by migration, whether they have moved, remained in their countries of origin, or are citizens of countries of destination.

61 Robert Holzmann and Johannes Koettl, "Portability of pension, health, and other social benefits: facts, concepts, issues", IZA Discussion Paper, No. 5715 (Bonn, IZA, 2011). Available from www.papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=1849470.

62 Kolitha Wickramage and others, "Risk of mental health and nutritional problems for left-behind children of international labor migrants", *BMC Psychiatry*, vol. 15, No. 39 (March 2015). Available from https://bmcpsychiatry.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/s12888-015-0412-2.

63 Anna Di Bartolomeo, Shushanik Makaryan and Agnieszka Weinar (eds.) *Regional migration report: Russia and Central Asia* (San Domenico di Fiesole, 2014). Available from http://cadmus.eui.eu/bitstream/handle/1814/31245/RussiaAndCentralAsia_MPC_CarimEastReport.pdf?sequence=1.

CHAPTER IV

Legislative frameworks and regional cooperation for managing migration

International migration relates to a core element of State sovereignty, namely the right of States to determine who enters and remains on their territory. As such, States enjoy considerable latitude on determining the conditions under which people migrate, and have adopted a range of national policies to address migration.

However, their rights in this regard are not exclusive. Any regulations that they adopt must be consistent with their obligations under international law. Thus, States parties to the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees and/or the 1967 Protocol are obliged to protect those recognized as having a "well-founded fear of persecution for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion," in their country of origin against *refoulement* (return to a situation in which they would be endangered). There are therefore well-recognized limits to state discretion over migration.

Furthermore, the treatment of migrants, including irregular migrants, is governed by relevant international human rights and labour standards, which themselves are governed by the general principle of universality. As a consequence, with limited exceptions, migrant workers are equal in human and labour rights. Such rights include, but are not limited to, non-discrimination; the freedom to leave and re-enter the State of origin; the right to life; and the prohibition of torture, cruel treatment, slavery, servitude and forced labour. Children of migrants have the right to a name, registration of birth and a nationality, as well as access to education on the basis of equality of treatment with nationals of the State concerned. To understand national policies it is, therefore, important to assess the impacts of these international conventions.

Finally, countries of origin are important stakeholders in international migration. Although migrants may be abroad they are still citizens of their countries of origin, whose situation is a key concern of these countries. As such, cooperation between countries to address migration situations, through various mechanisms and forums, is a significant component of contemporary migration management.

National frameworks for migration management

Countries of origin and destination can address migration issues through national frameworks. A comprehensive policy framework should include an explicit policy document, the necessary legislation, a specified administrative structure and linkage with overall development strategies. The process to formulate policies and legislation should involve consultations with key stakeholders, including employers, trade unions and migrant organizations, and should be based as far as possible on good-quality data and evidence.

POLICY DOCUMENTS

Comprehensive migration policy documents include those adopted by Bangladesh, Cambodia, Kiribati, Russian Federation, Sri Lanka and Tuvalu. These policies focus on ensuring safe migration, either to the country or from it, outlining requirements for migration and measures aligning migration with other State objectives. For example, the expatriates, welfare and overseas employment policy of Bangladesh, adopted in January 2016, contains provisions on promoting and ensuring safe migration, the security and welfare of expatriate workers and their families, the inclusion of migration in national development, proper management of labour migration and the migration of female workers. The national labour migration policies of Kiribati and Tuvalu align migration with responses to climate change, while the Russian Federation's concept of migration policy 2012–2025 links migration with future sustainable development in the country and outlines reforms to address shortcomings in existing migration procedures.

LEGISLATION ON MIGRATION

All countries have adopted legislation governing migration. Typically, under labour migration legislation, authority and responsibility for migration management are assigned to specific government agencies. The legislation contains provisions to protect migrant workers, including statements of their rights; requirements such as employment contracts, medical examinations and insurance; and measures to regulate private recruitment agencies. The legislation is usually broad or general, but the implementing agency is given the authority to make and enforce specific regulations within the scope of the legislation. Trade unions and the private sector should also be consulted in the development of such legislation, especially when it comes to issues such as employment contracts.

As an example from a country of origin, the Bangladesh *Overseas Employment and Migrants Act 2013* contains chapters on recruitment agencies, the registration of migrant workers and migration

clearance, employment contracts, provision for bilateral agreements on migration, rights of migrant workers, and offences and penalties.

Most countries of destination also have specific legislation covering migrant workers. Under the *Act on Foreign Workers Employment, 2004,* the Republic of Korea, for example, established the Employment Permit System under which the country recruits lower-skilled migrant workers from other Asian countries. The Act is based on such principles as ensuring that foreign workers supplement the domestic labour market, rather than displacing workers of the Republic of Korea; non-discrimination against foreign workers; maintaining the temporary nature of migration; transparency in the recruitment process for foreign workers; and ensuring that hiring migrant workers is not an alternative to industrial restructuring. It sets out procedures for hiring foreign workers, and requirements for contracts and measures to ensure return of migrant workers, as well as clarifying aspects such as employer responsibility for health insurance provision and conditions for migrants to change jobs.

ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURES FOR THE MANAGEMENT OF MIGRATION

Some countries in the region manage international labour migration with ministries devoted to that purpose. Examples are the Bangladesh Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment, and the Sri Lanka Ministry of Foreign Employment Promotion and Welfare.

Most countries designate an agency or department within the labour ministry to be responsible for deploying workers abroad or for receiving foreign workers. This is the administrative structure in, for example, Cambodia, Myanmar, Philippines, Republic of Korea, Singapore, Thailand and Viet Nam. In Malaysia, responsibilities are shared between the Ministry of Home Affairs and the Ministry of Human Resources. In the Philippines, the Philippines Overseas Employment Administration manages the recruitment and deployment of migrant workers, while the Overseas Workers Welfare Administration deals with specific aspects pertaining to the welfare of workers to prevent agencies being forced to trade off rights and numbers of migrants.

Several countries have established government-owned recruitment agencies. The Human Resources Development Service of Korea is an agency within the Ministry of Employment and Labour mandated to implement the Employment Permit System. In this context, the Republic of Korea recruits migrant workers only from countries that have established quasi-governmental agencies for recruitment to avoid the exploitation of migrant workers by private recruitment agencies.

Many countries of origin create administrative machineries in places where large numbers of their workers are concentrated to provide assistance to them. Complaints mechanisms are often put in place and shelters for workers in distress can be provided. Bangladesh has established labour welfare wings in Bangladesh missions abroad to protect migrant workers and to research into labour markets. The Philippines has established Philippine Overseas Labour Offices in Philippine diplomatic missions to protect Filipino workers, provide on-site assistance to them and to seek new employment opportunities through market research on labour force requirements.

POLICY COHERENCE

Migration policies can best contribute to economic and social development when they are linked to overall development strategies and guided by the 2030 Agenda, preferably through mainstreaming of migration into development strategies (see box, *Mainstreaming international migration into development strategies* on page 40). As a result, migration policies should be consistent with human resource development, education and training, and industrial policy, and vice versa. For example, it is advantageous for a country to send more highly skilled workers abroad because they will earn and remit more and also encounter fewer problems of exploitation and poor labour standards. Yet to do so requires that the general education system as well as vocational and technical education take into account foreign labour markets.

Similar to this, countries of destination should avoid an overreliance on low-skilled migrants that would put downward pressure on local wages and provide a disincentive to investing in industrial restructuring, including automation. The Republic of Korea and Singapore have set annual low-skilled migration quotas by industrial sector based on an analysis of economic growth in those sectors, while Singapore also uses measures to ensure that low-skilled migration is not a substitute for employment of nationals or investment in productivity upgrades.

International cooperation on migration

BILATERAL COOPERATION

Many countries in the region have bilateral agreements to provide a framework for labour migration management, often in the form of memoranda of understanding. ILO Recommendation No. 86 concerning Migration for Employment (revised 1949) includes a model for these agreements. These memoranda usually include concrete implementation, monitoring and evaluation procedures, though most are general in their wording, requiring the development of more detailed procedures and regulations for implementation. While generally it is positive to establish clear criteria and procedures for migration, if these procedures become overly bureaucratic, time-consuming and costly, many migrants opt to move via irregular channels.

In a global review of memoranda of understanding, ILO noted that a majority lacked normative foundations and respect for human rights based on international instruments. Most also lacked specific reference to equal treatment of migrant workers; wage protection measures; enforceable provisions regarding contracts and workplace protection; prohibition of confiscation of travel and identity documents; provision of health security; a pension on a par with local workers; and concrete mechanisms for complaints.[64] In addition, most of the memoranda were developed without consultation with employers' and workers' organizations.

REGIONAL COOPERATION

Regional organizations also play a role in regulating international migration. As the interests of countries in the subregions are often complementary, and migration flows often have a significant subregional component, subregional organizations have the potential to strengthen migration management and the protection of the rights of migrant workers. This can be done through providing fora for discussion, cooperation and agreement on principles, roles and responsibilities, all based on mutual benefit and with strong political legitimacy.

For example, the Treaty on Eurasian Economic Union, which comprises Member States including Armenia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan and Russian Federation, provides a comprehensive framework for labour migration, addressing the free movement of migrant workers, but also clarifying issues such as migrants' access to social protection, mutual recognition of qualifications and the rights of migrants in countries of destination. A treaty addressing the portability of pensions is also under negotiation. This treaty has shown results, with the number of migrant workers from Kyrgyzstan in the Russian Federation increasing by 1.6 per cent in 2015, as the number of migrant workers from Tajikistan decreased by more than 13.0 per cent.[65]

Several mutual recognition arrangements, allowing for freer movement of skilled professionals in engineering, nursing, architecture, dentistry, medicine, accountancy and tourism, have been negotiated between ASEAN Member States. ASEAN has further adopted a Declaration on the Protection and Promotion of the Rights of Migrant Workers, in which Member States aim to provide a framework for action towards the promotion of the rights of migrants, and call for an ASEAN instrument on the protection and promotion of the rights of migrant workers. This instrument is under negotiation. However, these measures have limited effectiveness, as processes around the implementation of mutual recognition agreements have proved to be complex, limiting the number of migrants who have been able to make use of these agreements. In addition, the Declaration has no legal force, limiting its effectiveness, while the proposed instrument remains under negotiation.

More recently, the ASEAN Convention against Trafficking in Persons, especially Women and Children, was signed by the ASEAN leaders at the twenty-seventh ASEAN Summit in Kuala Lumpur in November 2015 and entered into force on 8 March 2017. The Convention is modelled on the 2000 United Nations Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime. Although it is primarily focused on labour migrants, the Convention is intended to, among other things, strengthen cooperation to prevent and combat trafficking, address the drivers of trafficking and protect victims of trafficking.

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64 P. Wickramasekara, *Bilateral Agreements and Memoranda of Understanding on Migration of Low Skilled Workers: A Review* (Geneva, ILO, 2015). Available from www.ssrn.com/abstract=2636289.
65 Evgeny Vinokurov, "Eurasian Economic Union: Current state and preliminary results", *Russian Journal of Economics*, vol. 3, No. 1 (March 2017), pps. 54-70.

In 2016, ASEAN Member States further emphasized the need to protect and support victims of trafficking and other migrants in crisis in the East Asia Summit Declaration on Strengthening Responses to Migrants in Crisis and Trafficking in Persons.[66]

The Member States of the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC) adopted the SAARC Convention on Preventing and Combating the Trafficking in Women and Children in Prostitution in 2002 (entered into force in 2006). Although the regional trafficking convention was significant at the time, it is not consistent with broader efforts to address trafficking given its definitional limitations (delimiting the purpose of trafficking to prostitution along with the lack of a rights-based approach and an enforcement mechanism). More recently, the Member States of SAARC adopted the "Kathmandu Declaration" aiming to strengthen cooperation on labour migration to protect migrant workers.

In addition to formal regional processes, States have come together in informal processes known as regional consultative processes on migration. These processes bring together representatives of States, international organizations and, in some cases, non-governmental organizations for informal and non-binding dialogue and information exchange on migration-related issues of common interest and concern. These processes permit an open discussion in contexts where negotiating formal agreements would be difficult, and have formed the basis for effective cooperation in the management of labour migration. This is done by contributing to networking and building trust and confidence among States that may otherwise be divided by their stance on migration, and building capacity to effect changes in laws and policies at the national and regional levels.

A number of these processes exist in the region, including:

- The Bali Process on People Smuggling, Trafficking in Persons and Related Transnational Crime. This is a forum for policy dialogue, information-sharing and practical cooperation to help the region effectively respond to the challenges of people smuggling, trafficking in persons and other transnational crimes involving 48 Member States (almost all the ESCAP members, except those from North and Central Asia), observer countries and IOM, UNHCR and UNODC. In 2016, the members of the Bali Process adopted a ministerial declaration calling for a comprehensive, human rights-focused and vulnerable-group-centred approach to irregular migration. In addition, through the Bali Process, capacity-building support is extended to countries through policy guides and training workshops on such issues as the identification and protection of victims of trafficking.

- The Almaty Process on Refugee Protection and International Migration is a regional consultative process established in 2013 to "address the multiple challenges resulting from complex migration dynamics and mixed migratory movements in Central Asia and the wider region, in a cooperative and coordinated manner."[67] The Almaty Process promotes sustained dialogue and exchange of information on migration issues and on refugee protection challenges, such as irregular migration, human trafficking, migrant vulnerabilities, migrant integration, human mobility and human rights of migrants. The member countries are: Afghanistan, Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkey and Turkmenistan. Other countries of the region and international organizations and civil society organizations are also invited to attend meetings of the Almaty Process on an ad hoc basis.

- The Regional Consultative Process on the Management of Overseas Employment and Contractual Labour for Countries of Origin in Asia, or the Colombo Process, which focuses on labour migration. It has 12 participating States from Asia and 11 partner and observer States, which are destination areas for labour migration. The Process addresses the protection and provision of services to migrant workers. This is done through optimizing the benefits of organized labour migration; increasing remittance flows; capacity-building; data collection; and inter-State cooperation. The countries of origin in the Colombo Process meet with the key countries of destination in the Abu Dhabi Dialogue, namely Bahrain, Kuwait, Malaysia, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and United Arab Emirates. The most recent conference was the Senior Officials' Meeting and Fourth Ministerial Consultation, held in Colombo on 23 and 24 January 2017. These discussions have led to practical outcomes, including research on recruitment processes and pilot cooperation projects addressing mutual concerns of countries of origin and destination regarding skills development, certification upgrading and recognition.

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66 See http://asean.org/storage/2016/09/EAS-Declaration-on-Strenghtening-Responses-to-Migrants-in-Crisis-and-TIP1.pdf.
67 See https://www.iom.int/almaty-process

INTERNATIONAL DIALOGUE, COOPERATION AND LEGAL FRAMEWORKS

International human rights and labour standards have been negotiated, and ratified in the Asia-Pacific region, focusing on the rights of migrants. Principal amongst these is the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families. The preamble to the Convention notes that it takes into account the principles embodied in the basic instruments of the United Nations concerning human rights as well as the relevant instruments of ILO, especially those pertaining specifically to international migrant workers. By restating these human rights, it is emphasized in the Convention that they apply to all persons, including migrant workers.

In Article 25 of the Convention, the long-standing principle that migrant workers shall enjoy treatment not less favourable than that which applies to nationals of the State of employment in respect of remuneration, conditions of work and terms of employment is reiterated, and the principle that equality cannot be derogated in private contracts is stipulated.

In addition to these basic rights, the following is elaborated in the Convention: "other rights of migrant workers and members of their families who are documented or in a regular situation". These include the rights to full information, temporary absence, liberty of movement and residence, participation in public affairs, and equality of treatment with nationals in education, training, access to housing, health care and terms of employment.

ILO conventions can be categorized as those that pertain to all workers (including migrant workers) and those that refer specifically to migrant workers. Eight fundamental ILO conventions refer to all workers, as do the Private Employment Agencies Convention, 1997 (No. 181) and the Domestic Workers Convention, 2011 (No. 189). While these two pertain to all workers, they are particularly salient for international labour migration. Article 7 of the Private Employment Agencies Convention states that "private employment agencies shall not charge directly or indirectly, in whole or in part, any fees or costs to workers", implying that employers are required to bear the costs of recruitment of workers. In addition, the Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949 (No. 97) and Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 (No. 143) address migration directly, outlining key protections for

migrant workers such as equal treatment with regards to employment conditions, access to social protection, and promoting international cooperation on migration issues.

Because ratifying an international convention requires a country to bring its laws into conformity with the convention and be accountable under a supervisory mechanism, countries may be reluctant to do so. This can be the case even when a country's management of labour migration largely adheres to the principles of the convention. For this reason, international organizations have developed soft law frameworks to guide State action in managing migration.

In 2006, ILO developed the Multilateral Framework on Labour Migration. In this non-binding Framework, the sovereign right of all nations to determine their own migration policies is recognized, and the themes of decent work for all, governance of migration, protection of migrant workers, promoting migration and development linkages, and expanding international cooperation are addressed.

A key principle of the Framework is that "all international labour standards apply to migrant workers, unless otherwise stated. National laws and regulations concerning labour migration and the protection of migrant workers should be guided by relevant international labour standards and other relevant international and regional instruments".[68] Also called for in the Framework are measures to prevent abusive practices, migrant smuggling and trafficking in persons; establishing an orderly and equitable process of labour migration; licensing and supervising recruitment and placement agencies; and recognizing the contribution of labour migration to employment, economic growth, development and the alleviation of poverty. In addition, it is suggested that development and implementation of these measures be carried out in consultation with workers' and employers' organizations as key stakeholders in labour migration processes.

Also in the Framework, a suggestion is made to expand avenues for regular labour migration that take into account labour market needs and demographic trends, and the value of establishing systems and structures for periodic, objective labour market analyses that take into account gender issues. Moreover, the Framework suggests establishing transparent policies for the admission, employment and residence of migrant workers based on clear criteria, including labour market needs, and, where appropriate, establishing policies and procedures to

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68   ILO, *ILO Multilateral Framework on Labour Migration: Non-Binding Principles and Guidelines for a Rights-Based Approach to Labour Migration* (Geneva, 2006).

facilitate the movement of migrant workers through bilateral, regional or multilateral agreements.

Member States of IOM have adopted the Migration Governance Framework. In this Framework, they have proposed a structure in which States and IOM can work together to address migration issues and presented the ideal version of migration governance to which States can aspire and for which IOM can provide support and assistance. Furthermore, an ideal approach that allows a State to determine what it might need to govern migration well and in a way that fits its circumstances is provided.

The Framework is based on three principles and three objectives. The three principles are:

a   Good migration governance requires adherence to international standards and the fulfilment of migrants' rights;

b   Migration and related policies are best formulated using evidence and whole-of-government approaches;

c   Good migration governance relies on strong partnerships.

The three objectives are:

a   Good migration governance and related policy should seek to advance the socioeconomic well-being of migrants and society;

b   Good migration governance is based on effective responses to the mobility dimensions of crises;

c   Migration should take place in a safe, orderly and dignified manner.[69]

A set of indicators on policies governing migration are contained in the Migration Governance Index, developed by the Economist Intelligence Unit and IOM to evaluate progress towards this goal.

In addition to these agreements and soft law frameworks, the intergovernmental machinery for discussing and addressing international migration, in particular labour migration, has undergone considerable development. This process began with the International Conference on Population and Development in 1994, during which Member States endorsed a Programme of Action that included a chapter on migration, setting the basis for much subsequent work. This work has accelerated since

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69   IOM, document C/106/40. Available from www.governingbodies.iom.int/system/files/en/council/106/C-106-40-Migration-Governance-Framework.pdf.

the turn of the millennium through United Nations initiatives, notably the High-level Dialogue on International Migration and Development, held by the General Assembly in September 2006, which was the first meeting of its kind focused on international migration.

Following the above-mentioned High-level Dialogue, several Governments established the State-led Global Forum on Migration and Development, which provides an annual forum for informal dialogue among countries on migration and development issues, to exchange good practices, identify gaps and establish partnerships between key stakeholders. It has helped build consensus among Member States on international migration issues, addressing contentious issues in a pragmatic and solution-oriented fashion.

The second High-level Dialogue on International Migration and Development, held at the General Assembly in 2013, was a milestone in setting out a consensus on international migration. The outcome declaration adopted by Member States during this meeting outlined a common understanding on the contribution of migration to development. The importance of promoting and protecting "the human rights and fundamental freedoms of all migrants, regardless of their migration status, especially those of women and children, and the need to address international migration through international, regional or bilateral cooperation and dialogue and through a comprehensive and balanced approach, recognizing the roles and responsibilities of countries of origin, transit and destination in promoting and protecting the human rights of all migrants, and avoiding approaches that might aggravate their

vulnerability" was reaffirmed in the declaration. Also in the declaration, there was a call incorporating human mobility in the 2030 Agenda.[70] The third High-level Dialogue will be held no later than 2019.

Member States further committed to addressing migration in the adoption of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, in which the international community incorporated features of international migration into the global strategy for sustainable development. Here there was a focus on facilitating orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration (target 10.7) and protecting labour rights and promoting safe and secure working environments for all workers, including migrant workers, in particular women migrants (target 8.8).[71, 72]

On 19 September 2016, the General Assembly hosted a high-level plenary meeting in response to large-scale movements of refugees and migrants in recent years. The General Assembly, at its seventy-first session, adopted the New York Declaration for Refugees and Migrants, and decided that an intergovernmental conference should be organized in 2018 and that a global compact for safe, orderly and regular migration should be submitted to the conference for adoption. The compact will be the result of "a process of intergovernmental negotiations leading to the adoption of a global compact for safe, orderly and regular migration," and "would set out a range of principles, commitments and understandings among Member States regarding international migration in all its dimensions" to facilitate cooperation and the achievement of the migration-related goals of the 2030 Agenda and the Addis Ababa Action Agenda of the Third International Conference on Financing for Development.

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70 General Assembly resolution 68/4.
71 General Assembly resolution 70/1.
72 For more details, see E/ESCAP/GCM/PREP/2.

CHAPTER V

Shaping the Global Compact on migration: Some recommendations

As the preceding chapters have shown, international migration is at the heart of the economic and social transformation underway in the Asia-Pacific region, both driving it and being driven by it. The numbers of migrants to and from the region are growing, flowing from demographic and cultural shifts, political conflicts, environmental changes, but above all, the desire for greater opportunities that are not available at home.

The interplay of these factors is complex; yet, whatever way they evolve, migration will remain a reality in Asia and the Pacific, as throughout the world. It will continue to take multifaceted forms, each with its own specific features, trends, challenges, vulnerabilities and opportunities. People moving to take up opportunities will continue to build connections across borders; people forced to move for fear of conflict, environmental degradation, or lack of opportunity will still require protection; and Governments will continue to face the challenge of addressing these diverse movements and their wide-ranging impacts with comprehensive and coordinated policies and practices.

This report has highlighted the impacts of migration, both for countries of origin and destination, and for migrants and non-migrants. These include both positive and negative aspects, often mixed together: for example, migration for domestic work is a risk for many women as it exposes them to risks of abuse and exploitation given the legal gaps that often exist in this sector; however, it may also be a means of their material betterment, which empowers them in their home communities. Migration of students may be positive, upgrading the skills of citizens to support development in ways impossible if people remained in their country; or it may be a means by which countries of destination seek to improve the skills of their populations without.

This report has further discussed the challenges faced by Governments in this regard: finding ways to balance the positive and negative impacts of different forms of migration through comprehensive policies; compiling accurate, timely and accessible data on migrants and their situations, especially where many migrants are undocumented; and the inherent difficulties challenges faced by all countries in protecting citizens abroad, and resident non-citizens.

This report has also shown how Governments, in coordination with other partners and especially the United Nations system, have worked out ways to address these challenges. To this effect, increasing numbers of countries are adopting comprehensive policies; engaging in multilateral dialogue and cooperation to address shared responsibilities and opportunities; and developing human rights norms and labour standards which set baselines for the treatment of all migrants, regardless of their status.

Going forward, the global compact for safe, orderly and regular migration, and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development set a challenge to Member States to build on and learn from these experiences, to refine them to ensure that migration benefits all stakeholders, whether they are migrants or non-migrants, in countries of origin, destination or transit.

While the 2030 Agenda and the international human rights system create the objectives of migration policy, the global compact for safe, orderly and regular migration is expected to provide a road map to guide the achievement of these objectives. In shaping this document, Asia-Pacific countries have a unique opportunity to ensure that their specific priorities, concerns and experiences are integrated, resulting in a framework which will provide a grounding for future policymaking, cooperation and implementation to ensure the best possible outcomes of migration for all.

Achievement of the 2030 Agenda can play an important role in helping to address some of the drivers of unsafe and disorderly migration, such as lack of sustainable development, conflict and insecurity, allowing people to make free choices with regards to international migration.

The present report shows that there are already a number of conventions, regional and subregional frameworks, bilateral and national policies, but so far, they have not been able to fully address key issues in a comprehensive manner. Bilateral agreements, such as memoranda of understanding, often regulate legal ways to migrate through regular channels without addressing issues such as access to social protection. In many cases, bilateral agreements are made to address the lack of a comprehensive framework.

The 2030 Agenda, with its clarion call to address inequalities and to provide universal access to health care and social protection for all, of which migrants are often excluded, requires new approaches to address international migration. Specifically, target 10.7. calls for facilitating orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies. Many existing policies facilitate migration to a certain extent, but to not always ensure that it is safe and responsible. A Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration would provide further details to implement target 10.7.

Consultations towards the global compact for safe, orderly and regular migration have been organized around six thematic areas, namely:

- Human rights of all migrants, social inclusion, cohesion and all forms of discrimination, including racism, xenophobia and intolerance

- Irregular migration and regular pathways, including decent work, labour mobility, recognition of skills and qualifications and other relevant measures

- International cooperation and governance of migration in all its dimensions, including at borders, on transit, entry, return, readmission, integration and reintegration

- Contributions of migrants and diasporas to all dimensions of sustainable development, including remittances and portability of earned benefits

- Addressing drivers of migration, including adverse effects of climate change, natural disasters and human-made crises, through protection and assistance, sustainable development, poverty eradication, conflict prevention and resolution

- Smuggling of migrants, trafficking in persons and contemporary forms of slavery, including appropriate identification, protection and assistance to migrants and trafficking victims

Asia-Pacific priorities for the Global Compact

Research and stakeholder consultations identified the following key priorities for the Asia-Pacific region that should be addressed in the Global Compact:

1. Creating more regular pathways for labour migration of low-skilled migrant workers, in line with countries' identified needs and development strategies and international human rights norms;

2. Ensuring the fair treatment of migrant workers in line with existing national labour regulations and human rights standards, including in informal sectors, such as domestic work;

3. Ensuring ethical recruitment with fair and transparent costs to avoid exposing migrants to situations of additional vulnerability;

4. Reducing remittance transaction costs and creating more regular remittance channels with low costs;

5. Creating opportunities for regular migration for those choosing to migrate as a climate change adaption strategy or those who are forced to migrate as a result of natural disasters;

6. Combating trafficking and smuggling of migrant workers through information campaigns, better law enforcement, regional and subregional cooperation, creating more opportunities for safe and regular migration, as well as through protection of victims of trafficking and smuggling;

7. Increasing multilateral and multi-stakeholder cooperation on international migration to ensure policy coherence to address international migration in a comprehensive and balanced fashion

To address these key issues, actions would have to be taken at global, regional (and subregional), as well as at national levels. Some actions comprise policies and the legal framework, some require global and regional cooperation between Member States and some require negotiations with the private sector and other stakeholders. The following actions are recommended to work towards safe, orderly and regular migration:

Global and legal framework and its implementation at national level

There are already global legal frameworks protecting the rights of migrant workers in the existing human rights framework. Increasing ratification status of all core human rights conventions, including the International Convention for the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families as well as relevant ILO conventions (notably 97, 143 on migrant workers, 181 on private recruitment agencies and 189 on domestic workers) would be an important step. Further, national laws, policies and regulations, bilateral and multilateral agreements, and voluntary codes of conduct with these documents and all sectors of work, including domestic work and agricultural work included in labour law where these are not already included. After ratification, their implementation at national level including monitoring, will be crucial.

Labour migration in Asia and the Pacific is the main migration trend, with significant benefits accruing to all stakeholders. However, these benefits are limited or even undermined by the high levels of irregular and unsafe means of migration. Unscrupulous recruitment practices are often the root cause of human rights violations that migrant workers face.

Therefore, ensuring ethical recruitment through modelling regulation of labour recruiters on existing international instruments, notably ILO Convention 181 on Private Employment Agencies (1997), further elaborated in ILO's General Principles and Operational Guidelines for Fair Recruitment (2016) in national legislation, would be crucial.

Governments, trade unions, employers and civil society should work together towards effective governance of labour markets in the form of harmonized labour policies and strengthened human rights protection for all migrant workers, and through intergovernmental conventions, bilateral agreements, treaties, declarations and frameworks. These vary from legally-binding conventions, to more general international norms, to statements of principle without monitoring or implementation mechanisms. The Global Compact could provide guidelines for the governance of labour policies and human rights protection for all migrant workers.

Since there are already a multitude of agreements at multiple levels, ensuring coherence at the national level between bilateral and regional agreements, national labour market policies and other relevant policy areas will be important. Agreements may also have to be revised in line with guidelines that may be contained in the Global Compact. In this context, creating a multi-agency support structure to facilitate labour mobility and advance consensus building in a coordinated fashion could be helpful to ensure that coherence. In that context, bilateral memoranda of understanding may have to be revised in consultation with workers' and employers' organizations, and in line with the recommendations of ILO recommendation 86.

Adopting an explicit, rights-based approach to exploitation in migration will be important to address trafficking in persons and migrant smuggling. Such an approach is focused on the victim, explicitly recognizing and advancing the rights of trafficked persons to protection, support, remedies and a safe, supported return. A human rights-based approach to migrant smuggling demands a similarly victim-centred approach, requiring States to put in place laws, policies and practices to ensure that the rights of persons who have been smuggled are respected and protected. This includes the right to basic assistance and protection from violence, exploitation and return to persecution.

Regional cooperation

As migration is a cross-border issue and many countries face similar issues with regards to migration, particularly labour migration, regional cooperation is essential to address the multiple facets of international migration in the Asia-Pacific region.

Improving multilateral cooperation including by forming a global alliance of labour-sending States to advance shared priorities and working towards a global framework for managing labour migration would be helpful to ensure the protection of the human rights of migrant workers. Pursuing dialogue, capacity-building and agreement on labour migration through multiple levels, including regional consultative processes such as the Bali Process, Colombo Process and Abu Dhabi Dialogue, is also conducive in this regard.

Subregional organizations that have already set up mechanisms for economic cooperation and integration, such as ASEAN and the Eurasian Economic Union could move further forward in facilitating safe, orderly, and regular migration and share their experience with other subregional organizations.

Developing agreement between countries of origin, destination, and transit on standard operating procedures for addressing migration crises based on international best practice and human rights norms contained in international human rights conventions could also provide action points to address future crises and ensure better preparedness.

Actions at national level

Migration policies should be mainstreamed in national development strategies — in both countries of origin and destination of migrants — to ensure their alignment with wider objectives. The possibility of labour migration could be taken into account in sectoral planning, especially education, vocational and skills training, and manpower planning. Labour market information systems could be strengthened with a specific focus on migration.

The following specific actions are recommended to ensure the protection of human rights of migrant workers:

- Both countries of origin and destination could strengthen complaints mechanisms for migrant workers and mechanisms for providing migrants with comprehensive and accurate information,

prior to their departure, upon arrival in the host country, and on their return to their country of origin, as relevant.

- Both countries of origin and destination could streamline formal recruitment and deployment processes to increase incentives to move via regular channels and avoid exploitative irregular migration. Governments could also provide more information about recruitment and deployment procedures. Governments could consider initiatives to regularize migrant workers in an irregular status, in line with effective experiences in countries of the region.

- Countries of destination could establish sector-based work permits, which link a worker to a sector rather than an individual employer, enabling greater labour force mobility and bargaining power for migrant workers.

- Countries of origin could consider focusing on upskilling migrant workers and ensuring the international recognition of their qualifications through reform of technical and vocational education schemes in coordination with authorities in countries of destination and through bilateral and multilateral forums, as relevant. This would be a way to increase access to social protection of migrant workers, as higher skilled migrants are typically better protected and would open more regular migration pathways to more migrant workers.

To address xenophobia, information campaigns could be initiated by Governments, in cooperation with employers, trade unions and civil society organizations, to inform the public about the benefits of labour migration, including through supporting the regional implementation of the global United Nations "Together" initiative and the IOM "I am a Migrant" campaign.

Multilateral cooperation and the role of ESCAP

Migration has important regional dimensions: almost three quarters of migrants in the ESCAP region are from countries of this region. Therefore, regional follow-up, using the regional commissions as a platform for dialogue and review of implementation of the global compact for safe, orderly and regular migration, would be important for helping ensure its success. Migration is already integrated into the

regional road map for the achievement of the 2030 Agenda in the Asia-Pacific region; it could be further included as part of discussions in the Asia-Pacific Forum on Sustainable Development.

Migration is one of the key areas to be covered when discussing regional integration. Thus, labour migration should be part of all discussions on regional integration, including as part of ESCAP's work in follow-up to the Bangkok declaration on regional economic cooperation and integration of 2013.

ESCAP, as the regional platform supports Member States in this process by providing data, information and analysis on the benefits and challenges of migration, and policy options to address migration to ensure a triple win: for countries of origin and destination, and migrants themselves. This analytical work will inform intergovernmental processes on sustainable development, population and development, and on international migration. ESCAP, through the Regional Coordination Mechanisms, also coordinates actions in the UN Systems related to international migration.

During the Asia-Pacific Regional Preparatory Meeting for the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration, Member States may wish to consider these recommendations, or add their own. ESCAP, in collaboration with its partners, will work to ensure that these recommendations are transmitted to the global process for the preparation of the global compact for safe, orderly and regular migration, and stands ready to work with its Member States, as they see fit, to ensure that the process and outcomes are successful and meaningful.

Annex tables

ANNEX TABLE 1. MIGRANTS IN ASIA-PACIFIC SUBREGIONS, 1990–2017

SUBREGION	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	2015	2017
East and North-East Asia	3 959 345	4 658 475	5 393 081	6 229 524	7 061 814	7 596 693	7 776 716
North and Central Asia	19 513 320	19 135 481	18 288 209	17 877 431	17 137 787	17 661 022	17 642 659
Pacific	4 729 186	5 020 317	5 357 750	6 020 798	7 122 159	8 097 550	8 407 650
South-East Asia	2 876 616	3 700 057	4 926 833	6 522 343	8 661 853	9 867 722	9 873 600
South and South-West Asia	20 600 029	16 559 192	16 558 983	15 041 247	15 693 625	17 068 598	18 464 368
Asia and the Pacific	51 678 496	49 073 522	50 524 856	51 691 343	55 677 238	60 291 585	62 164 993

Source: United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2017). *Trends in International Migrant Stock: The 2017 revision* (data for 2017 forthcoming, United Nations database, POP/DB/MIG/Stock/Rev.2017).

ANNEX TABLE 2. MIGRANTS FROM ASIA-PACIFIC SUBREGIONS, 1990–2017

SUBREGION	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	2015	2017
East and North-East Asia	7 111 734	8 048 913	9 274 322	10 969 837	12 855 895	14 043 109	14 662 000
North and Central Asia	21 870 450	21 399 570	20 741 540	20 755 630	20 792 758	21 159 585	21 228 000
Pacific	930 286	1 039 407	1 236 165	1 379 173	1 581 390	1 801 744	1 812 000
South-East Asia	7 297 714	9 166 588	11 543 014	14 084 196	17 776 406	20 252 762	21 085 000
South and South-West Asia	27 046 590	24 887 888	27 027 529	29 212 416	36 924 089	41 111 023	42 991 000
Asia-Pacific region	64 256 774	64 542 366	69 822 570	76 401 252	89 930 538	98 368 223	101 778 000

Source: United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2017). *Trends in International Migrant Stock: The 2017 revision* (data for 2017 forthcoming, United Nations database, POP/DB/MIG/Stock/Rev.2017).

ANNEX TABLE 3. TOP 15 COUNTRIES OF ORIGIN OF MIGRANTS FROM ASIA AND THE PACIFIC, 2000, 2010, AND 2017

RANK	COUNTRY OF ORIGIN	2000	2010	2017	CHANGE FROM 2000–2017 (%)
1	India	7 952 368	13 286 337	16 588 000	108.6
2	Russian Federation	10 812 562	10 430 967	10 636 000	-1.6
3	China	5 753 739	8 598 028	9 962 000	78.1
4	Bangladesh	5 432 953	6 748 118	7 500 000	38.1
5	Pakistan	3 392 645	5 018 550	5 979 000	76.
6	Philippines	3 031 119	4 656 379	5 681 000	87.4
7	Afghanistan	4 539 970	5 003 276	4 826 000	6.3
8	Indonesia	2 334 652	3 492 456	4 234 000	81.4
9	Kazakhstan	3 566 599	3 979 923	4 074 000	14.2
10	Turkey	2 812 148	2 952 422	3 419 000	21.6
11	Myanmar	1 121 782	2 436 388	2 895 000	158.1
12	Viet Nam	1 849 385	2 306 669	2 727 000	47.4
13	Republic of Korea	1 930 230	2 266 276	2 478 000	28.4
14	Uzbekistan	1 606 869	1 913 257	1 992 000	23.9
15	Malaysia	1 202 246	1 621 937	1 856 000	54.4

Source: United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2017). *Trends in International Migrant Stock: The 2017 revision* (data for 2017 forthcoming, United Nations database, POP/DB/MIG/Stock/Rev.2017).

ANNEX TABLE 4. KEY DESTINATIONS OF MIGRANTS FROM TOP SENDING COUNTRIES IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC, 2015

	1ST KEY DESTINATION	2ND KEY DESTINATION	3RD KEY DESTINATION	4TH KEY DESTINATION	5TH KEY DESTINATION
India	United Arab Emirates (3 499 337, 22%)	Pakistan (2 000 908, 13%)	United States of America (1 969 286, 13%)	Saudi Arabia (1 894 380, 12%)	Kuwait (1 061 758, 7%)
Russian Federation	Ukraine (3 276 758, 31%	Kazakhstan (2 352 598, 22%)	Germany (1 080 503, 10%)	Uzbekistan (877 690, 8%)	Belarus (682 362, 6%)
China	Hong Kong, China (2 307 783, 24%)	United States of America (2 103 551, 22%)	Republic of Korea (750 639, 8%)	Canada (711 220, 7%)	Japan (652 413, 7%)
Bangladesh	India (3 171 022, 44%)	Saudi Arabia (967 223, 13%)	United Arab Emirates (906 483, 13%)	Malaysia (358 432, 5%)	Kuwait (350 229, 5%)
Pakistan	Saudi Arabia (1 123 260, 19%)	India (1 106 212, 19%)	United Arab Emirates (863 858, 15%)	United Kingdom (540 495, 9%)	Afghanistan (348 369, 6%)
Philippines	United States of America (1 896 031, 36%)	United Arab Emirates (555 704, 10%)	Canada (545 321, 10%)	Saudi Arabia (488 167, 9%)	Australia (222 340, 4%)
Afghanistan	Iran (Islamic Republic of) (2 348 369, 48%)	Pakistan (1 618 687, 33%)	Saudi Arabia (364 304, 8%)	Germany (99 638, 2%)	United Kingdom (68 256, 1%)
Indonesia	Saudi Arabia (1 294 035, 33%)	Malaysia (1 070 433, 28%)	United Arab Emirates (260 312, 7%)	Singapore (163 237, 4%)	Bangladesh (157 862, 4%)
Kazakhstan	Russian Federation (2 560 269, 63%)	Germany (1 016 844, 25%)	Ukraine (222 245, 5%)	Belarus (69 957, 2%)	Greece (26 982, 1%)
Turkey	Germany (1 655 996, 53%)	France (297 429, 10%)	Netherlands (199 551, 6%)	Austria (184 847, 6%)	United States of America (107 627, 3%)
Myanmar	Thailand (1 978 348, 69%)	Malaysia (252 292, 9%)	Saudi Arabia (202 720, 7%)	Bangladesh (201 346, 7%)	United States of America (103 291, 4%)
Viet Nam	United States of America (1 302 870, 51%)	Australia (227 298, 9%)	Canada (182 847, 7%)	France (125 731, 5%)	Republic of Korea (113 998, 4%)
Republic of Korea	United States of America (1 119 578, 48%)	Japan (522 486, 22%)	China (186 786, 8%)	Canada (144 332, 6%)	Australia (98 395, 4%)
Uzbekistan	Russian Federation (1 146 803, 58%)	Kazakhstan (281 713, 14%)	Ukraine (219 814, 11%)	Turkmenistan (84 960, 4%)	Republic of Korea (49 862, 3%)
Malaysia	Singapore (1 123 654, 61%)	Bangladesh (233 561, 12%)	Australia (156 934, 8%)	United Kingdom (75 182, 4%)	United States of America (63 566, 3%)

Source: United Nations, *Trends in international migrant stock: migrants by destination and origin, International Migrant Stock 2015*. Available from www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/data/estimates2/estimates15.shtml (Accessed 22 October 2017).

ANNEX TABLE 5. TOP 15 COUNTRIES OF DESTINATION OF MIGRANTS IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC, 2000, 2010, AND 2017

RANK	COUNTRY OF DESTINATION	2000	2010	2017	CHANGE FROM 2000 TO 2017 (%)
1	Russian Federation	11 900 297	11 194 710	11 651 509	-2.1
2	Australia	4 386 250	5 882 980	7 035 560	60.4
3	India	6 411 272	5 436 012	5 188 550	-19.1
4	Turkey	1 280 963	1 367 034	4 881 966	281.1
5	Kazakhstan	2 871 300	3 334 623	3 635 168	26.6
6	Thailand	1 257 821	3 224 131	3 588 873	185.3
7	Pakistan	4 181 912	3 941 586	3 398 154	-18.2
8	Hong Kong, China	2 669 122	2 779 950	2 883 051	8.1
9	Malaysia	1 277 223	2 406 011	2 703 629	111.7
10	Iran (Islamic Republic of)	2 803 805	2 761 561	2 699 155	-3.7
11	Singapore	1 351 691	2 164 794	2 623 404	94.1
12	Japan	1 686 567	2 134 151	2 321 476	37.7
13	Bangladesh	987 853	1 345 546	1 500 921	51.9
14	Uzbekistan	1 405 250	1 220 149	1 159 190	-17.5
15	Republic of Korea	244 178	919 275	1 151 865	371.7

Source: United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2017). *Trends in International Migrant Stock: The 2017 revision* (data for 2017 forthcoming, United Nations database, POP/DB/MIG/Stock/Rev.2017).

ANNEX TABLE 6. TOP 20 HOST COUNTRIES OF REFUGEE POPULATIONS IN THE ASIA-PACIFIC REGION, 2016

RANK	COUNTRY	NUMBER OF REFUGEES
1	Turkey	2 869 379
2	Pakistan	1 352 551
3	Iran (Islamic Republic of)	979 435
4	China	317 239
5	Bangladesh	276 198
6	Russian Federation	228 936
7	India	197 823
8	Thailand	106 426
9	Malaysia	92 209
10	Afghanistan	59 770
11	Australia	42 107
12	Nepal	25 244
13	Armenia	17 873
14	Papua New Guinea	9 529
15	Indonesia	7 819
16	Tajikistan	2 719
17	Japan	2 512
18	Georgia	2 107
19	Republic of Korea	1 773
20	New Zealand	1 348

Source: UNHCR, *Global Trends, Forced Displacement in 2016*. Available from www.unhcr.org/5943e8a34 (Accessed 13 October 2017).

ANNEX TABLE 7. WHERE THE SYRIAN REFUGEES LIVED IN 2016

COUNTRY OF DESTINATION	NUMBER OF SYRIAN REFUGEES	PERCENTAGE
Turkey	2 823 987	51.1
Lebanon	1 005 503	18.2
Jordan	648 836	11.7
Germany	375 122	6.8
Iraq	230 836	4.2
Egypt	116 013	2.1
Sweden	96 914	1.8
Others	167 770	3.0

Source: UNHCR, *Global Trends, Forced Displacement in 2016*. Available from www.unhcr.org/5943e8a34 (Accessed 13 October 2017).

ANNEX TABLE 8. WHERE THE AFGHAN REFUGEES LIVED IN 2016

COUNTRY OF DESTINATION	NUMBER OF AFGHAN REFUGEES	PERCENTAGE
Pakistan	1 352 160	54.1
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	951 142	38.0
Germany	46 292	1.85
Australia	20 220	0.81
Sweden	16 558	0.66
Italy	16 033	0.64
Others	99 005	4.0

Source: UNHCR, *Global Trends, Forced Displacement in 2016*. Available from www.unhcr.org/5943e8a34 (Accessed 13 October 2017).

ANNEX TABLE 9. TOP OECD DESTINATIONS FOR MIGRANTS FROM THE ASIA-PACIFIC REGION, 2015

TOP OECD DESTINATION FOR MIGRANTS FROM TURKEY

RANK	COUNTRY	NUMBER OF TURKISH MIGRANTS	PERCENTAGE
1	Germany	23 698	43.4
2	France	4 938	9.1
3	United States	4 201	7.7
4	Austria	3 653	6.7
5	Netherlands	2 843	5.2

TOP OECD DESTINATION FOR MIGRANTS FROM PAKISTAN

RANK	COUNTRY	NUMBER OF PAKISTANI MIGRANTS	PERCENTAGE
1	Germany	24 496	24.6
2	United States	18 057	18.1
3	Italy	11 361	11.4
4	Canada	11 329	11.4
5	Australia	8 019	8.1

TOP OECD DESTINATION FOR MIGRANTS FROM CHINA

RANK	COUNTRY	NUMBER OF CHINESE MIGRANTS	PERCENTAGE
1	Republic of Korea	177 001	32.6
2	Japan	100 571	18.5
3	United States	74 558	13.7
4	United Kingdom	43 000	7.9
5	Australia	27 924	5.2

TOP OECD DESTINATION FOR MIGRANTS FROM BANGLADESH

RANK	COUNTRY	NUMBER OF BANGLADESHI MIGRANTS	PERCENTAGE
1	United States	13 570	26.7
2	Italy	12 443	24.5
3	Germany	4 297	8.5
4	Australia	3 426	6.8
5	Canada	3 304	6.5

TOP OECD DESTINATION FOR MIGRANTS FROM INDIA

RANK	COUNTRY	NUMBER OF INDIAN MIGRANTS	PERCENTAGE
1	United States	64 116	23.9
2	Canada	39 525	14.7
3	United Kingdom	36 000	13.4
4	Australia	34 710	12.9
5	Germany	26 113	9.7

TOP OECD DESTINATION FOR MIGRANTS FROM JAPAN

RANK	COUNTRY	NUMBER OF JAPANESE MIGRANTS	PERCENTAGE
1	United Kingdom	7 000	18.8
2	Germany	6 886	18.5
3	United States	5 395	14.5
4	Korea	4 589	12.3
5	New Zealand	2 181	5.9

TOP OECD DESTINATION FOR MIGRANTS FROM THE PHILIPPINES

RANK	COUNTRY	NUMBER OF FILIPINO MIGRANTS	PERCENTAGE
1	United States	56 478	31.2
2	Canada	50 825	28.1
3	Japan	23 957	13.2
4	Australia	11 942	6.6
5	Korea	9 867	5.4

TOP OECD DESTINATION FOR MIGRANTS FROM KOREA

RANK	COUNTRY	NUMBER OF KOREAN MIGRANTS	PERCENTAGE
1	Japan	22 571	33.8
2	United States	17 138	25.7
3	Germany	7 229	10.8
4	Canada	4 091	6.1
5	Australia	3 551	5.3

Source: OECD, International Migration Database, Available from http://www.oecd.org/els/mig/keystat.htm (Accessed 13 October 2017).

ANNEX TABLE 10. OUTBOUND INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS FROM SELECTED ASIA-PACIFIC COUNTRIES, 2000–2016

	CHINA	INDIA	REPUBLIC OF KOREA	KAZAKHSTAN	MALAYSIA	VIET NAM	RUSSIAN FEDERATION	ASIA-PACIFIC REGION
2000	141 690	62 350	70 991	20 203	45 303	9 148	28 677	702 999
2001	166 111	74 276	73 612	23 391	44 256	9 847	30 123	753 175
2002	224 961	100 296	85 749	27 463	46 461	12 197	35 089	907 932
2003	313 241	118 932	91 445	25 778	48 879	14 889	37 269	1 040 488
2004	366 379	133 857	96 962	27710	48 296	17 030	37 953	1 112 382
2005	403 990	146 041	100825	29440	47 397	20 801	39 551	1 183 808
2006	407 743	145 547	104788	28248	49 002	23 330	41 822	1 183 498
2007	430 819	161 495	109 897	30 475	52 656	28 012	43 600	1 265 008
2008	460 355	183 643	117 954	46 780	56 287	36 514	44 908	1 380 591
2009	517 796	203 208	127 079	35 968	59 894	43 945	47 829	1 498 962
2010	569 039	208 719	126 848	39 484	59 542	47 268	50 447	1 589 240
2011	653 658	205 055	128 296	42 344	59 918	52 225	52 123	1 691 692
2012	698 395	190 883	121 437	42 499	59 776	53 976	51 058	1 713 249
2013	714 449	189 921	113 832	54 096	60 263	55 967	51 262	1 753 548
2014	754 312	212 614	108 621	66 448	63 136	59 103	55 360	1 887 571
2015	800 701	253 926	108 033	77 954	64 482	63 702	56 483	2 041 314
2016	801 187	255 030	108 047	77 965	64 480	63 703	56 328	2 043 461

Source: UNESCO, Institute for Statistics, Global flow of tertiary-level students 2017. Available from data.uis.unesco.org (Accessed 16 October 2017)

ANNEX TABLE 11. MIGRANTS IN THE ASIA-PACIFIC REGION BY COUNTRY

	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	2015	2017
SOUTH AND SOUTH WEST ASIA	**20 600 029**	**16 559 192**	**16 558 983**	**15 041 247**	**15 693 625**	**17 068 598**	**18 464 368**
Afghanistan	57 686	71 522	75 917	87 300	102 246	382 365	133 612
Bangladesh	881 617	934 735	987 853	1 166 700	1 345 546	1 422 805	1 500 921
Bhutan	23 807	27 972	32 137	40 279	48 420	5 1106	52 296
India	7 493 204	6 952 238	6 411 272	5 923 642	5 436 012	5 240 960	5 188 550
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	4 291 601	2 937 668	2 803 805	2 568 930	2 761 561	2 726 420	2 699 155
Maldives	8 689	18 510	27 092	45 045	73 604	94 086	67 026
Nepal	429 974	690 225	717 900	679 457	578 657	518 278	502 670
Pakistan	6 208 204	3 669 308	4 181 912	3 171 132	3 941 586	3 628 956	3 398 154
Sri Lanka	41 561	40 841	40 132	39 526	38 959	38 706	40 018
Turkey	1 163 686	1 216 173	1 280 963	1 319 236	1 367 034	2 964 916	4 881 966
EAST AND NORTH-EAST ASIA	**3 959 345**	**4 658 475**	**5 393 081**	**6 229 524**	**7 061 814**	**7 596 693**	**7 776 716**
China	376 361	442 198	508 034	678 947	849 861	978 046	999 527
Hong Kong, China	2 218 473	2 443 798	2 669 122	2 721 235	2 779 950	2 838 665	2 883 051
Macao, China	205 047	224 929	240 791	279 308	318 506	342 703	353 654
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	34 103	35 143	36 183	40 097	44 010	48 458	48 939
Japan	1 075 626	1 381 097	1 686 567	2 012 916	2 134 151	2 043 877	2 321 476
Mongolia	6 718	7 424	8 206	11 475	16 061	17 620	18 204
Republic of Korea	43 017	123 886	244 178	485 546	919 275	1 327 324	1 151 865
SOUTH-EAST ASIA	**2 876 616**	**3 700 057**	**4 926 833**	**6 522 343**	**8 661 853**	**9 867 722**	**9 873 600**
Brunei Darussalam	73 200	84 748	96 296	98 441	100 587	102 733	108 612
Cambodia	38 375	92 230	146 085	114 031	81 977	73 963	76 329
Indonesia	465 612	378 960	292 307	289 568	305 416	328 846	345 930
Lao People's Democratic Republic	22 866	23 526	21 948	20 371	21 185	22 244	45 466
Malaysia	695 920	937 368	1 277 223	1 722 344	2 406 011	2 514 243	2 703 629
Myanmar	133 545	113 663	98 011	83 025	76 414	73 308	74 660
Philippines	154 071	207 345	318 095	257 468	208 599	211 862	218 530
Singapore	727 262	991 492	1 351 691	1 710 594	2 164 794	2 543 638	2 623 404
Thailand	528 693	809 720	1 257 821	2 163 447	3 224 131	3 913 258	3 588 873
Timor-Leste	8 954	9 743	10 602	11 286	10 983	10 834	12 063
Viet Nam	28 118	51 262	56 754	51 768	61 756	72 793	76 104

ANNEX TABLE 11. MIGRANTS IN THE ASIA-PACIFIC REGION BY COUNTRY

	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	2015	2017
PACIFIC	**4 729 186**	**5 020 317**	**5 357 750**	**6 020 798**	**7 122 159**	**8 097 550**	**8 407 650**
American Samoa	21 283	23 098	24 912	24 233	23 555	23 216	23 561
Australia	3 955 213	4 153 330	4 386 250	4 878 030	5 882 980	6 763 663	7 035 560
Cook Islands	2 587	2 686	2 785	3 277	3 769	4 152	4 213
Fiji	13 283	13 001	12 719	12 435	13 351	13 751	13 911
French Polynesia	25 830	28 360	30 329	32 286	31 640	30 058	30 687
Guam	69 755	71 912	74 070	74 743	75 416	76 089	78 027
Kiribati	2 162	2 223	2 283	2 487	2 868	3 153	3 022
Marshall Islands	1 158	1 480	1 891	2 417	3 089	3 284	3 292
Micronesia (Federated States of)	3 685	3 342	3 116	2 905	2 805	2 756	2 785
Nauru	2 815	2 605	2 394	2 253	2 112	3 178	3 710
New Caledonia	37 673	43 662	49 651	55 405	61 158	64 290	66 001
New Zealand	518 047	588 617	678 813	839 952	947 443	1 039 736	1 067 423
Niue	461	480	498	522	545	557	553
Northern Mariana Islands	26 593	32 376	40 122	37 542	24 168	21 648	21 777
Palau	2 801	4 749	6 310	6 043	5 787	5 664	4 988
Papua New Guinea	32 720	33 526	25 101	29 967	25 424	25 782	32 389
Samoa	3 357	4 694	5 998	5 746	5 122	4 929	4 879
Solomon Islands	4 226	4 178	3 981	3 271	2 760	2 585	2 532
Tonga	2 911	3 274	3 684	4 301	5 022	5 731	4 952
Tuvalu	318	263	217	183	154	141	143
Vanuatu	2 308	2 461	2 626	2 800	2 991	3 187	3 245
NORTH AND CENTRAL ASIA	**19 513 320**	**19 135 481**	**18 288 209**	**17 877 431**	**17 137 787**	**17 661 022**	**17 642 659**
Armenia	658 789	693 999	657 900	469 119	221 560	191 199	190 719
Azerbaijan	360 600	344 070	327 540	302 220	276 901	264 241	259 241
Georgia	338 300	278 450	218 600	199 805	182 202	168 802	78 218
Kazakhstan	3 619 200	3 245 250	2 871 300	3 102 962	3 334 623	3 546 778	3 635 168
Kyrgyzstan	623 083	510 296	389 558	312 897	231 511	204 382	200 294
Russian Federation	11 524 948	11 928 927	11 900 297	11 667 588	11 194 710	11 643 276	11 651 509
Tajikistan	428 900	348 347	299 266	280 444	278 152	275 059	273 259
Turkmenistan	306 500	273 565	218 498	213 051	197 979	196 386	195 061
Uzbekistan	1 653 000	1 512 577	1 405 250	1 329 345	1 220 149	1 170 899	1 159 190

Source: United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2017). *Trends in International Migrant Stock: The 2017 revision* (data for 2017 forthcoming, United Nations database, POP/DB/MIG/Stock/Rev.2017).

ANNEX TABLE 12: TRENDS IN INTERNATIONAL MIGRANT STOCK: THE 2017 REVISION

ESCAP	INTERNATIONAL MIGRANTS 2017	FEMALES AMONG ALL INTERNATIONAL MIGRANTS (PER CENT) 2017	DISTRIBUTION OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRANTS BY AGE GROUP 2017			MEDIAN AGE OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRANTS (YEARS) 2017	MIGRANTS ORIGINATING FROM ANOTHER MAJOR AREA (PER CENT) 2017	ORIGIN UNKNOWN (PER CENT)	OUT-MIGRANTS[A] (THOUSANDS)
			0-19	20-64	65+				
	2017	**2017**	**2017**	**2017**	**2017**	**2017**	**2017**	**2017**	**2017**
EAST AND NORTH-EAST ASIA									
China	999 527	38.6	230 399	661 791	107 337	36.8	14.4	16.8	9 962
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	48 939	50.2	9 593	35 004	4 342	36.3	11.0	4.4	111
Hong Kong, China	2 883 051	60.5	207 751	2 021 185	654 115	46.1	2.3	1.1	1 067
Japan	2 321 476	55.0	320 102	1 816 252	185 122	34.3	17.8	4.1	832
Macao, China	353 654	54.6	25 567	283 240	44 847	43.9	0.5	7.2	144
Mongolia	18 204	27.0	2 240	15 195	769	38.8	23.6	3.5	68
Republic of Korea	1 151 865	43.9	74 229	1 046 535	31 101	35.4	9.4	4.6	2 478
SOUTH-EAST ASIA									
Brunei Darussalam	108 612	43.4	22 210	79 442	6 960	35.8	3.1	1.0	45
Cambodia	76 329	46.1	8 035	63 903	4 391	34.9	1.1	4.0	1 065
Indonesia	345 930	41.8	105 104	222 176	18 650	29.8	19.4	11.5	4 234
Lao People's Democratic Republic	45 466	46.3	7 715	35 481	2 270	36.8	0.1	9.9	1 313
Malaysia	2 703 629	39.6	318 760	2 316 541	68 328	33.0	0.7	7.6	1 856
Myanmar	74 660	45.2	15 664	52 460	6 536	36.9	0.0	12.9	2 895
Philippines	218 530	48.2	64 236	130 439	23 855	34.0	32.7	26.4	5 681
Singapore	2 623 404	55.9	341 375	2 046 689	235 340	39.4	1.4	11.1	327
Thailand	3 588 873	49.8	562 867	2 843 463	182 543	33.5	0.5	0.0	903
Timor-Leste	12 063	49.4	2 349	9 117	597	37.1	12.4	12.1	39
Viet Nam	76 104	42.1	13 177	58 022	4 905	36.5	8.2	7.3	2 727
SOUTH AND SOUTH-WEST ASIA									
Afghanistan	133 612	50.1	58 236	73 605	1 771	24.2	0.0	25.6	4 826
Bangladesh	1 500 921	47.3	316 042	1 142 448	42 431	31.7	7.4	22.6	7 500
Bhutan	52 296	18.9	7 015	42 625	2 656	35.5	0.8	7.7	44
India	5 188 550	48.8	387 051	3 803 320	998 179	45.6	0.4	1.9	16 588
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	2 699 155	47.0	725 238	1 882 481	91 436	30.2	0.0	8.9	1 170
Maldives	67 026	12.3	3 832	62 534	660	32.4	1.7	6.6	..
Nepal	502 670	69.4	55 560	394 801	52 309	40.7	0.0	2.5	1 738
Pakistan	3 398 154	48.7	224 024	2 873 560	300 570	43.0	0.0	0.1	5 979
Sri Lanka	40 018	47.8	16 066	19 842	4 110	25.3	25.2	4.9	1 727
Turkey	4 881 966	53.0	1 404 194	3 141 634	336 138	32.6	28.1	1.9	3 419
NORTH AND CENTRAL ASIA									
Armenia	190 719	59.5	18 206	113 237	59 276	52.7	13.2	11.2	951
Azerbaijan	259 241	52.1	33 593	179 788	45 860	43.2	12.5	0.9	1 155
Georgia	78 218	56.2	18 295	42 345	17 578	40.6	67.3	4.0	838
Kazakhstan	3 635 168	50.4	471 949	2 608 737	554 482	38.9	85.7	0.0	4 074
Kyrgyzstan	200 294	59.6	17 046	139 869	43 379	46.9	78.7	2.2	760
Russian Federation	11 651 509	50.9	797 981	9 125 111	1 728 417	44.5	58.9	0.0	10 636
Tajikistan	273 259	56.9	19 222	179 997	74 040	54.0	88.0	0.1	579
Turkmenistan	195 061	53.4	17 070	119 380	58 611	53.0	37.1	1.3	243
Uzbekistan	1 159 190	53.4	109 502	716 033	333 655	51.6	88.6	6.6	1 992
PACIFIC									
American Samoa	23 561	49.0	3 549	18 037	1 975	39.1	20.3	2.4	..
Australia	7 035 560	51.1	681 193	4 942 838	1 411 529	44.4	88.1	0.4	542
Cook Islands	4 213	49.9	1 412	2 586	215	28.3	3.5	17.9	22
Fiji	13 911	46.0	3 016	9 570	1 325	35.8	41.8	13.0	215
French Polynesia	30 687	43.0	4 792	22 692	3 203	42.1	78.6	12.8	..
Guam	78 027	48.4	12 737	58 841	6 449	36.7	77.6	3.3	..
Kiribati	3 022	47.3	753	2 123	146	30.9	1.6	16.4	..
Marshall Islands	3 292	38.8	849	2 281	162	33.2	69.7	11.1	..
Micronesia (Federated States of)	2 785	46.5	638	1 946	201	37.3	14.9	65.4	21
Nauru	3 710	37.5	802	2 624	284	35.1	25.6	28.8	..
New Caledonia	66 001	46.1	8 096	47 404	10 501	44.5	69.4	9.4	..
New Zealand	1 067 423	51.6	138 946	748 412	180 065	42.8	74.9	3.9	834
Niue	553	45.8	252	284	17	22.5	3.4	16.3	..
Northern Mariana Islands	21 777	58.0	3 625	17 213	939	38.5	84.4	4.3	..
Palau	4 988	43.2	536	4 234	218	38.7	79.4	2.8	..
Papua New Guinea	32 389	36.5	11 188	19 420	1 781	31.6	59.4	3.6	..
Samoa	4 879	49.9	2 188	2 404	287	22.5	11.4	9.1	118
Solomon Islands	2 532	43.9	526	1 778	228	38.5	23.9	22.7	..
Tonga	4 952	45.7	1 529	3 186	237	31.6	9.6	72.0	60
Tuvalu	143	44.8	32	77	34	NA	11.9	22.4	..
Vanuatu	3 245	50.3	847	2 182	216	35.2	20.3	28.7	..
Total	**62 164 993**								

Source: United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2017). *Trends in International Migrant Stock: The 2017 revision* (data for 2017 forthcoming, United Nations database, POP/DB/MIG/Stock/Rev.2017).

Towards Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration in the Asia-Pacific Region: Challenges and Opportunities

International migration is a structural feature of an interconnected Asia and the Pacific, and is one of the key factors shaping the region, with profound social and economic impacts. Migratory movements change the composition of the population, labour force and society.

In the context of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, ensuring that migration takes place in a safe, orderly and regular fashion will be a key priority for countries of Asia and the Pacific. As such, it is essential that migrants are respected as both agents of sustainable development and its beneficiaries

In the New York Declaration for Refugees and Migrants, adopted in September 2016, Member States set themselves the goal of adopting a global compact for safe, orderly and regular migration by 2018. This report aims to support that process by providing an analysis of trends and patterns of migration in the Asia-Pacific region, as well as its impacts and policy responses. It also aims to provide recommendations for the global compact to serve as a background document for the Asia-Pacific Regional Preparatory Meeting for the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration.